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ABSTRACT

This document contains seven papers together with 32 abstracts of papers prepared for Society of Professors of Education sectional meetings, the American Educational Studies Association, the Comparative and International Education Society, and the History of Education Society. Three graduate students and one senior present views on the relevance of teacher education from their own experience and find that most programs are unsuccessful in preparing teachers for the world in which they will teach. The papers of three professors of education support these views and offer some suggestions for improvement by bringing teacher education courses into closer touch with the schools, changing the methods of teacher placement, and applying systematic research methods to the processes of teacher education. The abstracts cover the following topics: (1) social studies abroad; (2) educational psychology; (3) administration, supervision, and curriculum; (4) systems approach to education courses; (5) comparative philosophy and education; (6) foundations of education; (7) documentary film in education; (8) a first course in educational studies; (9) overseas education; (10) the history of Negro education; and others. (MBM)

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MAKING TEACHER EDUCATION MORE RELEVANT

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SOCIETY OF PROFESSORS OF EDUCATION

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I. SOCIETY OF PROFESSORS OF EDUCATION
Session One

INTRODUCTION

Erwin H. Goldenstein
University of Nebraska

"Relevant" and "relevance" and their negative counterparts are widely used terms today, both with respect to teacher education and to education generally. Much of the dialogue concerning these terms is confusing. Frequently we do not make clear whether we mean the kind of relevance that may be regarded as specific or general, immediate or long range. We often fail to stipulate the object of relevance: Relevant to what? To whom? For what purpose? Under what circumstances? In spite of, or perhaps because of, this state of affairs, the Executive Committee thought it appropriate to designate "Relevance in Teacher Education" as the basic theme for the 1970 Annual Meeting of the Society of Professors of Education.

If our programs of teacher education are judged irrelevant by the young people in the programs and by those who have recently completed them, then perhaps we have been talking too much to ourselves. Instead of listening to the young people enrolled in and graduated from our programs, our minds may have been elsewhere. The situation is such today, however, that serious solicitation of student reactions is not merely prudent, it is urgent.

In view of considerations such as this, we deemed it appropriate to ask a panel of young educators to address themselves to the question, "How relevant is teacher education?" Accordingly, we now have the opportunity to hear from four students this morning as they address themselves to this topic.

At our second general session, to be held this afternoon, four professors have their turn to discuss the issue of making teacher education more relevant, given today's society, today's youth, and today's schools.

HOW RELEVANT IS TEACHER EDUCATION?

TEACHER EDUCATION RELEVANT TO A TURBULENT WORLD

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The topic under consideration this morning is the question of relevancy. Are teacher education programs relevant or not? Does the sequence of collegiate course work required for teacher certification produce the kind of individual who can educate the astounding diversity of students he will meet? Does it bring about a person who can utilize a variety of pre-determined and desirable teacher behaviors? Does it succeed in turning out teachers who exhibit a genuine commitment to learning, a more than adequate interest in students, nonaversive teaching techniques, an attitude of legitimate questioning and problem solving? If these questions can be answered in the affirmative, then the topic question can likewise be so answered. Unfortunately, I do not see how an affirmative answer is possible. "How relevant is teacher education?" It is fundamentally irrelevant! Philip Werdell's appraisal of the situation is trenchant, but apt: ". . . twentieth century needs are being met by a nineteenth century curriculum which is politically provincial, psychological simplistic, and subtly elitist."[1] To put it in the vernacular, the majority of American college students in teacher education programs are being had.

That prospective teachers must be prepared to face a deeply disturbed America is a generalization that hardly requires documentation. Minority groups are demanding the rights and privileges that for so long have been unconscionably denied; the squalor of poverty is finally being recognized as disgusting and intolerable in this, the most prosperous of nations; a far-away war has caused the fall of a powerful American President,—and has brought about an agonizing degree of social divisiveness; the generation gap that is said to exist does indeed exist, particularly between college students and the people who pay the bills. Looming over the social strife is the environmental problem,—earth, air, water,—the very necessities of life are being contaminated to such an extent that ecologists speak seriously of a threat to human survival. These are only a few of the many major problems confronting late twentieth century American society.

The newly certified teacher, recently expelled from the collegiate womb, encounters in classrooms the products of affluence and poverty, minority group and majority group, religion, secularism, and atheism, education and miseducation. If his professional education has not prepared him for these encounters, neither is he well prepared to deal with school administrators, parents, and others who are in one way or another associated with the schools. Although education is

usually associated with a variety of idealistic notions, e.g., creativity, problem solving, motivation, originality, appreciation, interest, dedication, to name only a few, the newly released teacher often has available to him little more than a less-than-adequate "bag of tricks." His preparation consists mainly of a collection of separate and often unrelated courses, which employ diverse vocabularies. His transcript may exhibit courses in developmental psychology, educational psychology, curriculum design, methods of teaching, philosophy of education, historical, economic, and sociological foundations of education, and, at least in the preparation of secondary school teachers, a concentration in some academic discipline.

The preparation that hodge-podge teacher education curricula provide is pathetically inadequate to the kinds of expertise required to educate the children of change. Although behavioral objectives for teacher education can be specified, existing programs seldom give evidence that they have been thought through to behavioral descriptions. Consequently, whether or not avowed objectives are achieved is largely a matter of chance. Educators have yet to describe and develop training programs that would enable teachers to be effective in educating children to cope intelligently with the problems of a tumultuous society.

The educational establishment, inherently conservative, cannot continue to act as though unaware of the execrable state of teacher education. Not only must there be a clearer recognition of the dangers posed by mindless change in the environment and society, educators must turn their powers to the development of teacher education programs relevant to a world in turbulent flux. "An education for survival is an education for change and social action, directed toward the future we seek. To educate for change is to educate for instability, versatility, and adaptability."[2] We cannot continue stressing "answer-oriented" learning, but must move in the direction of teaching students how to question and how to discover answers. In other words, we must work at creating experimental intelligence,—a methodological approach calling for the examination and evaluation of alternatives on the basis of evidence developed by inquiry, and the search for options holding greater promise of resolving the problems that provoke inquiry.

This is not to say that the past and its traditions are worthless; it is rather to urge that "answers" from the past be examined and evaluated in light of the present. If some traditional answer is worth keeping, ". . . it is not because of . . . history, but because circumstances have not changed enough to render it irrelevant."[3] For education to be relevant, it must make contact with cultural values, social functions, and individual lives. To create school conditions in which this can occur is essential. It might even be said that this is exactly what teaching is all about.[4]

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[1] Philip Werdell, "A Student's Aims in Education," *Dialogue on Education* (New York: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Incorporated, 1967), p. 47.

[2] Paul DeHart Hurd, "Education's Response to Awareness Needs," *Man and His Environment ... A View Toward Survival* (13th National Conference of the U.S. National Commission for UNESCO, San Francisco, November 23-25, 1969), p. 29.

[3] Carlton E. Beck, *et al., Education for Relevance* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1968), p. viii.

[4] Ralph M. Carlson, "Behavior Modification: Educational Implications," *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, Vol. I (September, 1968), p. 9.

RELEVANCE IN TEACHER EDUCATION: PERSONAL, DEVELOPMENTAL, THEORETICAL

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How relevant is teacher education? This question must be posed in consideration of the whole education curriculum from nursery school through one's final experiences within the education systems. Though teacher education programs today turn out an adequate product, our goal should, in fact, *must* be to improve upon the quality of the teacher we send into schools to teach our children. As we consider irrelevancies and inadequacies in the current system of developing teachers, we must be keenly aware of the excellent teachers currently being developed in many instances. We must always balance the viewpoint forwarded by our critics with a realistic view of the work being done, ready to incorporate the "new" as it merits inclusion while cautiously discarding the "old."

From this point of reference, then, let us search into three broad problem areas to discover irrelevant or inadequate practices in teacher education.

First, let me direct your attention to the language used by educators to discuss education. New words and phrases are continually introduced to describe and explain the learning-teaching process. We teachers seem to pride ourselves on the pseudo-sophistication of the language in which we discuss educational issues. Have we forgotten that one axiom of teaching is to reduce complexities to simpler concepts? Have we forgotten that good teaching might be partly defined with reference to the clarity and simplicity with which we express important ideas? Many students with whom I have discussed teacher education suggest that "an hour in that class is like a hike through meringue" or "his lectures are comparable to the foam on the beer." Can we afford to lose students' interest merely because we have not taken the trouble to explain concepts in language they can comprehend?

Let us also attempt to keep our ideas and presentations within the realm of experience of students. Early in their college careers we may find students lost or bored by involved, abstract constructs which we find very useful in advanced courses and research. In helping young people make the transition from "student to teacher," we need give attention to individual differences of students just as we will expect them to attend to individuals in their work. Do we really believe we move in education from the known to the unknown in our development? Many education students at the University of Wyoming have

reported that the ideas presented in their early courses were filled with concepts that had no identifiable relationship with their own experiences. This is one source of the cry, "Irrelevant!"

Teacher educators must give their attention to areas of knowledge in which students are expected to demonstrate proficiency. There seems to be little argument that competency in subject matter areas, often determined by a prescribed number of courses in an area, is essential to good teaching, but beyond this we find little agreement on the qualities we expect to find or develop in our teachers. If we are to accomplish the goal of producing the best possible teacher in a given period of time, we need to examine these areas and improve our performances.

First. We list as one of our goals "to enable students to know and understand themselves better as individuals in learning situations." We also suggest in our college catalogs that we will individualize instruction probably to provide a role model which the student might simulate when he begins his work as a teacher. We then place forty-five or fifty students in each class, subject each of them to the same treatment regardless of his own personal readiness and deliver beautifully outlined lectures on "Individual differences" or "the use of Discussion as a teaching technique." The student does not, in fact, learn to know himself better, and unless someone shows some individual attention to help this young person begin to find himself, he may never reach his best potential as a teacher.

Second. We must do a better job of communicating to the education student what is established as true about child growth and development and learning. I have worked with several student teachers and with many practicing teachers who could not define "learning" in a way such that the definition would allow for the consistent interrelating of retention, transfer, and motivation. Quite frankly, many teachers become irritated or upset when someone wants to discuss issues of learning, and a likely substitute for proposed topics will be a local gridiron catastrophe or the previous week's "Laugh-In." Student teachers are concerned, but in many instances they have become anxious to get their education finished, to be done with it as quickly and as painlessly as possible, so that they can go into schools and facilitate learning, . . . whatever that is.

Third. To add to the sense of relevancy in the teacher education program, we need to place the courses which give an overview at the beginning of the program; courses which provide an in-depth study should be nearer the end, and should follow in a sequential development from previously discussed skills and competencies. A course which poses questions about historical, philosophical, sociological, and psychological aspects of education followed by seminars may lead the student to partial answers. These could logically be followed by comprehensive courses in specific areas or by a student teaching experience suited in length and nature to the needs of the individual student. Such needs might be determined in a variety of ways including the student's self-evaluations.

Fourth. This, conveniently, leads me to my final consideration. It is that we must link theory and application as closely as we are able. Often we consider highly abstract constructs of learning and related areas much too early in the student's program with the result that he cannot incorporate the concepts in a way which makes them useable when the time for application arrives. So far as I can tell, the educational psychology course which I took as a sophomore in college fourteen years ago has done very little to help me in my teaching. I would likely have labeled that course "irrelevant" at that time and today I admit it is forgotten. The same course, however, taught during the summer between the end of college and my first teaching experience might have had a considerably different effect on me. Have we reason to believe that educational psychology is today more welcome to sophomores than it was a decade ago?

Students today ask to be involved earlier with the age group they anticipate teaching. In full consideration of the many problems including the possible lack of teacher knowledge, the danger of exploitation and the logistical problems among others, I would submit that students will find their work more relevant were they more involved in the application of newly found skills and concepts.

In conclusion, let me reiterate the aspects of teacher education I believe demand our immediate and sustained attention as we strive to make teacher education more relevant. We need to communicate with students within their experience boundaries. We need to reduce complexities to their simplest forms. We need to work harder at the search for new ways to implement the goals we have set for teacher education. We need to create situations wherein the "search for wisdom" in depth might become a central issue in students' lives. And we need to include technique and application with the presentation of theory. While I do not believe that teacher education is any more or less relevant to life and practice than education in any other area or on any other level, it is our charge to make teacher education so closely related to the later effective functioning of a teacher that no one will cry "Irrelevant!" It is my sincere desire that increased relevancy in teacher education programs will begin within us immediately and that through this, many excellent people will come to know the joy one experiences when he feels he rightfully deserves the title, "Teacher!"

IRRELEVANCE IN TEACHER EDUCATION

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Good morning. In response to the question "How relevant is Teacher Education?" I must answer "not very," insofar as I have experienced it. The next question, one that is suggested by the first, is this: What needs to be changed to make it more relevant? It is to this second and more interesting question that I wish to address myself this morning.

I preface my remarks with the observation that there are no teachers on the program today. This is curious and disconcerting. While I am grateful for the opportunity to vent some of my feelings with regard to the current state of teacher education, I do not think that students, graduate or undergraduate, are as qualified to discuss this issue as are current teachers who have had a couple of years experience. Unlike students, teachers have had to pay for whatever mistakes their professors and TAs may have made; they are, therefore, much more painfully aware of what irrelevancies do exist. Nevertheless, I am pleased that the SPE is raising the issue and seeking advice. Hopefully, the next time this issue comes up, teachers will be included in addition to the current panel of graduate students. Indeed, if one really wanted to get divergent ideas, parents might be invited, and leaders of "freedom schools," and others who are not affiliated with the educational establishment.

In thinking about the efficacy of teacher education (and hence its relevance), three general areas of concern come to mind. First and foremost, prospective teachers have relatively little experience with children. Joseph Featherstone has observed that potential teachers can get only two useful things from their training program,—knowledge of some real subject matter (like science, math or reading) and supervised experience in practice teaching. At the elementary level, one can question whether or not there is such a thing as a "real subject of education," but leaving that issue aside, I would like to focus on Featherstone's second point, i.e., supervised practive teaching.

The current approach is to expose the student to all of the "knowledge" he is thought to need and to have him then go out as a practice teacher and apply this knowledge. A major problem with this approach is that the curriculum (relevant or not) is directed to or at the student; it does not come out of his own concerns and frustrations. It makes little sense to lecture on the difficulties encountered in dealing with administrators, teacher colleagues, parents, or children be-

fore the student has had a chance to experience these situations. He does not know, not in any direct sense, that these problems exist.

In addition, this approach also isolates the professor from any chance of obtaining corrective feedback regarding the appropriateness (or relevancy) of his presentations. The student has not had sufficient exposure to school situations and problems to be able to say to the professor: "How does what you said relate to the following problem that I am having with my students?" Thus, because of the way in which the teacher education program is set up, students may complain about a lack of relevancy, and professors are insulated from corrective feedback.

It would be more appropriate to send prospective teachers out to the schools with the task of having to teach. Trials at teaching would then be the source of doubts, and students would more likely return to campus with pertinent and specific questions. One possible program might include classroom teaching in the morning with a return to the campus in the afternoon. On campus there would be various staff members who could lead discussions, raise issues themselves, or present lectures directed by student requests. It would also be possible for students to talk and exchange ideas with other students. Classroom supervision could be worked in at the student's request should campus presentations and consultation fail to help the student solve his particular problem. It may even be possible to employ some modeling by having the professor come out to the school and take over a class while the student watches and learns. For this sort of a program really to work, one would need smaller class sizes in college, professors more attuned to the needs and problems of the classroom teacher (prior experience as a teacher would be very desirable), and patient administrators. If such a program could be established during the student's first year on campus, with alternate semesters devoted to the general college curriculum, students might discover early in their college careers whether or not they would be happy teaching. As programs are now organized, this discovery comes very late.

The above proposal should not be confused with some of the current suggestions that all education courses should be discarded, that they are "soft" and a waste of time. There are some very useful learnings that can and need to be taught to prospective teachers; these are the proper subjects of "education" courses. Objections to education courses arise when course content is too elementary, repetitious or not in sequence with the student's needs.

A second area, one that is rarely covered in college, consists of the experiences which are chosen as learning activities. This is a crucial area. Yet, prospective teachers are not taught how to design lessons that will excite or "grab" a kid. Instead, we parade dull lessons in front of children and then complain about their inability to concentrate, their hyperactivity or the large class size. Instead of fitting our curriculum activities to the felt needs and concerns of children, we decide in advance what is going to be interesting,—whether they like it or not.

When a child is first learning, one does not have to present lessons or actively teach him. The child will demand to be taught. Parents frequently complain about a beginning reader's insistent demands to know what signs or other things say. Soon they are reading them on their own. Later on, when the child develops a hobby, it is not necessary to get him to go to the library, check out a book and then be quiet while he is supposed to be reading it. Observing children, one cannot help but be impressed with their intense demand for knowledge. It would be naive to suggest that we abandon lesson plans altogether, or that we shift to a completely unstructured program. But it is reasonable to urge that prospective teachers be made aware of these intrinsic motivations and that they should be helped to design lessons that tap these interests.

Child interest is being taken into account in some quarters. "Sesame Street," for example, is first presented to a sample of potential viewers to see if it will pass such an "interest test." Why not put all curricular materials to this kind of test? I am disturbed by the efforts of some of my fellow "behavior modifiers" who try to figure out what sorts of external rewards might be used with a particular child to get him to attend to what is admittedly a rather dull task. What we should be doing is trying to change the nature of the lesson so that the motivation to learn will come from the child.

This position is not new, and I suspect that this is what the movement toward what is sometimes called the "open classroom" is all about. It certainly is very close to what Dewey was advocating in the *Child and the Curriculum.* Unfortunately, it has not been conveyed to prospective teachers by their instructors in curriculum and educational psychology. As a result, many students come away from their college experience thinking that praise for good work will insure motivation and a desire to learn. There is an increasingly significant minority amongst today's students which is aware of this problem. However, their reaction to this lack of professorial interest seems to be one of overcompensation in the other direction—towards a complete lack of structure and planning. This concern needs to be recognized and channeled so that it does not backfire.

The third area of concern is comprised by issues of management, of discipline or behavior modification, these being problems not resolvable by changes in curriculum. I have asked several teachers to identify the problems of teaching for which they felt they had been least prepared. Classroom management was consistently mentioned, yet discussions of classroom management are notably absent from college texts and syllabuses. At best, students are taught the *name* of one set of techniques, but little in the way of practical applications. There may be attention to some of the more important principles, e.g., the sense of competence as an internal reinforcement system, but the principles remain unexplicated in terms of practice. This is the best that can be said. At worst, teachers are completely unprepared to deal with any but the most average or agreeable student.

Few students learn of such simple things as Redl's twenty intervention techniques. I suspect that few learn about the Life-Space Interview as it could be used by teachers. Likewise, there is little or no pre-exposure to some of the standard situations that teachers must face, e.g., stopping a fight, supervising a bathroom, recognizing the different kinds of temper tantrums and cries, dealing with "sassing," extortion, sullenness or hyperactivity. This lack in their training is even more serious if one stops to consider the consequences. When placed in a novel, uncertain or threatening situation, many teachers are likely to respond with anger and model their behavior after the scoldings that they so well remember having seen or received when they were in school themselves. When these inadequate means fail, there is an increased interest in getting rid of "non-passive" students by segregating them into programs for "the disruptive child."

The above suggestions are anything but novel. We all acknowledge their importance, but for some reason they have not been implemented. Funding is obviously a major and important consideration, but my suspicion is that a major factor is the Publish or Perish dictum which is rampant in colleges and universities across the country. Promotions and other reinforcers are not contingent upon how well a professor prepares his students to become effective teachers. Rather, they seem to be given in terms of how effectively a professor can ignore his students, teach out of a text or set of readings, and, subsequently, publish an article.

Unfortunately, renouncing Publish or Perish will not solve the problem, because many professors have not spent any appreciable time in school classrooms, either as a teacher or as an observer. For this reason, they are often tragically unaware of what sorts of demands will be placed on their students or how the students might meet these demands. Feedback, either from students who are practive teaching, or from regular teachers, is absolutely necessary to overcome the current situation, which approximates the blind leading the blind.

This has all been rather serious and I have used some strong language. I am sure that some of you will insist that the language has been too strong. There may be others for whom the entire presentation has itself been irrelevant, because they are already doing the kinds of things that I have been recommending. Both groups have my halfhearted apologies. My only defense lies in the following story, with which I would like to close.

The Foo Bird

It seems that in a far distant jungle, there lived a fabulous bird, known to the natives as the Foo bird. It had splendid plumage, was thought to be delicious, and would have quickly become extinct except for a legend. This normally inoffensive bird, if threatened, was said to fly over its enemies and, with astounding accuracy, hit them with its droppings. The droppings were harmless until removed; re-

moval caused instant death. So ran the legend. Because it was believed, the Foo bird lived in peace.

To this jungle came a famous "Great White Hunter," who had heard of the bird, but did not believe the legend. The natives tried to warn him; he refused to listen. Determined to capture a Foo bird, he set off into the jungle, searching for his prey. He had not penetrated half a mile when suddenly he felt something soft strike his nose. Crossing his eyes, he inspected it, and, sure enough, there was a bird dropping of no mean proportions. He was about to wipe it away when he remembered the legend, and then had second thoughts. Not wishing to risk his life, he resolved to leave the dropping on his nose.

Several years passed, during which the now retired hunter experienced an increasing sense of exasperation. People were always asking why he wore that unseemly ornament on his nose. A day arrived when he felt unable to tolerate the situation any longer; he felt that he must rid himself of his affliction.—Well, the legend turned out to be true, and he expired immediately. The moral of this little story, and of my presentation, is simply this: If the Foo s****, wear it. Thank you.

RELEVANCE AND REFORM IN TEACHER EDUCATION

Helen Lawrence
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University of Illinois

Relevant means fitting or suiting given requirements; pertinent, applicable or appropriate. How fitting or suitable is teacher education in meeting the requirements of our fast changing society? Today we live in the world of historical man's fantasies, fantasies and impossibilities that are now realities. No challenge seems too great for science, medicine and industry. But our progressive, technological, science-oriented society imposes almost impossible demands upon our educational systems. Education in response to this challenge is also changing, is improving, is becoming broader and is being organized into more comprehensive systems. An obvious consequence of this fact is that the role of the teacher is also changing. Hence, the preparation of teachers for the schools of today and tomorrow presents a continuous, new and challenging task for educational leaders.

Even in the short time I have been enrolled in Elementary Education teacher training, I have seen important changes in the program. The development of a teaching technique laboratory, more practicum experiences, more emphasis upon the critical years of early childhood are a few examples. Yet, with all this modernization there are still major unanswered questions about relevance.

There is general agreement that teachers and their education are the principal substance behind any effort made anywhere for the ultimate improvement of education. Yet, less attention has been paid to teachers and their improvement than to curriculums, teaching materials and educational technology. The time has arrived when efforts at reform should be centered on teacher education; the *status quo* is not good enough.

Teacher education programs characterized by lack of adaptability, flexibility and high intellectual quality are incapable of meeting the demands of the diverse needs of our complex society. Examination of teacher education programs reveals that there are markedly different practices among institutions. Some have little or no specific teacher education programs, others have extensive curricula. Emphasis on professional and academic studies varies greatly among institutions. The amount of time devoted to practice teaching in the class room differs considerably. Practices in student selection vary as do the courses offered to teachers in training at different levels—kindergarten, elementary, and secondary. The multitude of innovative and experimental courses and programs being offered in the nation's colleges and universities may themselves be indirect evidence of the inade-

quacy of teacher preparation in relation to the needs of students and exigencies of social and cultural change.

While knowledge of theories and methods of teaching is extremely important, a teacher education program should not be overwhelmingly dominated by these factors. A mixture of theory, methods and practical experience is essential if a teacher education program is to be effective. Students are demanding changes in traditional procedures; they are demanding more experience in teaching. Knowledge of more than subject matter is needed. Students ask for pre-employment exposure to the many other duties of the teacher; they desire and need experience in the social environment of the school. They press for opportunities to observe and test theories and methods in the classroom. An eight week student teacher period in the senior year is not sufficient to meet these needs; involvement throughout the teacher education program is necessary.

An example of one experimental program designed to meet the needs and demands of students is the Alternate Teacher Education Program at the University of Illinois. Although this program was designed primarily for the culturally disadvantaged, it takes an anthropological approach much needed in all teacher education. In a course entitled "Participation—Observation Seminar," students in their freshman year are immediately placed in classrooms as teacher aids, as tutors and as observers. Such experience in classrooms is continued throughout their undergraduate training. Educational theory is taught simultaneously. Thus, in addition to receiving more practical experience in teaching, educational theory makes this experience more meaningful; reciprocally, educational theory is perceived to be more functional and valuable.

Micro-teaching* is another program innovation. Micro-teaching means practice teaching in a scaled-down teaching situation. By working with small groups of children for brief periods, students experience many of the variables in the classroom without being overwhelmed by their complexity. These brief lessons, in addition to giving practical experience, allow opportunity for intense supervision and video-tape recording for immediate feedback.

The Colorado State College Experimental Internship Program is another example of innovation in teacher education. In this program a student's senior year is spent in an internship in which the student works in a public school half of each school day, under the supervision of a master teacher. This program provides the student intern with a full year of teaching experience during which he comes to see the totality of what teaching actually involves. The intern is a paid member of the faculty; he attends all district workshops, participates in extracurricular school activities, and thereby obtains a more realistic picture of future obligations that go beyond those of teaching subject matter in the classroom.

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*See below, *Microteaching as a Feedback System in Teacher Education*, on page 52 of this monograph.

The inadequacies of teacher education are also reflected in failures to meet the educational needs of minority groups in our society. New teachers produced by our educational systems and disadvantaged pupils are literally sociological strangers. To be completely relevant or functional in a diverse society, teacher education must do more than prepare teachers to work in "middle class" or "status quo" environments. Future teachers are needed who can also work effectively with pupils from disadvantaged groups,—with Blacks, Spanish-speaking Americans, southern white migrants, and American-Indians. Knowledge of the cultures of disadvantaged children and experience in the schools of the disadvantaged are needed to prepare student teachers to function well in deprived environments. Presently, much of teacher education can be characterized as an "exercise in irrelevance" insofar as it relates to this problem area in American society.

In summary, much of teacher education lacks relevance, and is not functional. Reform is essential in teacher education, if it is to meet the challenges imposed upon it by our progressive, diverse society.

SUMMARY

Erwin H. Goldenstein

In concluding this morning's session it is my privilege to express, on behalf of the Society, sincere appreciation to our four youthful professionals—Helen Lawrence of the University of Illinois, Rick Sheviakov of the University of Wisconsin, James Kern of the University of Wyoming, and Frank Gold of the University of Nebraska—for taking the time and making the effort to share with us their frank and penetrating analyses of relevancies and irrelevancies in programs of teacher education.

Frank Gold has indicated to us that we do not adequately prepare teachers for teaching in a world characterized by continual change, that our courses are often fragmented and unrelated, and that in general our programs seem more relevant to the problems of yesterday than to those of today and tomorrow.

James Kern has suggested that frequently our relevancies are virtually concealed in a meringue of irrelevancies, that we are prone to present concepts which appear to us to be relevant, but which seem irrelevant to students because they have not yet had the necessary experiences that would enable them to perceive the relevance. He has also noted that our procedures often tend to obscure the relevance of the very concepts we would convey to our students.

Helen Lawrence has advocated that relevance be realized through innovation and adaptability, and that we address ourselves urgently but thoughtfully to the task of making our programs more relevant to the problems of teachers who work with minority groups or disadvantaged students.

Rick Sheviakov has insisted that we consult teachers in elementary and secondary schools as well as people outside the educational establishment to discover the relevancies and irrelevancies in our programs. He has suggested that teacher education be designed to permit prospective teachers to discover for themselves the kind of relevant experiences they need in order to become effective teachers, both from the standpoint of providing appropriate learning experiences for their students and acquiring behaviors essential to effective classroom management.

Our dialogue this morning has called other irrelevancies to our attention. The ideas exchanged here should, in my judgment, prove relevant to us in our efforts to improve our approaches to the vital task of teacher education.

Certainly contemporary problems demand programs that are both relevant and imaginative. They will no longer permit the luxury of time afforded previous generations of teacher educators. Change

forces itself upon us far too rapidly for that. And our problems appear increasingly complex. To offer but one illustration, problems of health and discipline have always been with us but they are today compounded by feelings of alienation, by a general militancy, and by drug abuse that has reached an alarming magnitude. A recent report indicates more than 130 deaths due to drugs occurred in New York City in the first two months of 1970. And while these 130 may no longer be problems or have problems, they bear mute but eloquent testimony to the existence of *our* problems.

To all who have participated in this session, actively and passively, we express our thanks along with the invitation to return this afternoon to hear how Professors Arnstine, Edwards, Messerli, and Schumer would make teacher education more relevant to the education needs of the last third of the 20th century. The afternoon session will be ably chaired by our distinguished Vice-President, Professor Robert Beck.

II. SOCIETY OF PROFESSORS OF EDUCATION
Session Two

MAKING TEACHER EDUCATION MORE RELEVANT: FOUR PROPOSALS

Donald Arnstine
The University of California, Davis

American culture has in the past decade begun a process of political and social change so dramatic that by comparison the more obvious technological changes seem pallid. To say that teacher education has not kept pace would be an understatement. There has been much research, and a lot of new pedagogical language has been coined, but there has been little substantial change in teacher education over the past ten years. It is not easy to say *what* schools and colleges of education are doing to enable young people to participate intelligently in the education of children and youth in American public schools. But they *are* 'processing' thousands of prospective young teachers in classes that are much too large, which are required but not justified, which are unrelated to the practical tasks of teaching school, and which are often under the control of former public school teachers and administrators who have been elevated by the grace of time, old friends, and good fortune to positions of administrative power in colleges of education. Merely to call all of this irrelevant would be generous.

A situation of training as badly off as teacher education is not likely to be corrected in a day or a year. One wonders whether any genuine improvement could be wrought in a generation. Indeed, it may be reasonable to ask, not what will make teacher education more relevant, but rather, who will prepare teachers once schools of education are abandoned? For the moment I would like to avoid this question by suggesting four general areas in which schools and colleges of education might improve their practices, and thereby justify their existence by becoming relevant to what teachers do. Because the format for which the following remarks were intended was a panel discussion, I will attempt only to be suggestive, rather than to present any exhaustive argument. The four areas that will be discussed are: (1) the recruitment of prospective teachers; (2) teacher training; (3) teacher placement; and (4) the administration of schools of education.

Recruitment of prospective teachers. I am not familiar with any extensive programs for recruiting new teachers. Schools of education usually take whoever comes along, if his grades in courses of the right sorts are high enough. The consequence of this absence of recruitment has been to populate public schools with generally well-meaning ladies and gentlemen who drifted into teaching and will stay there until Something Better (a husband, or a principalship) comes

along. On the other hand, many young people who might have become excellent teachers will never again see the inside of a public school after they graduate from high school. The fraternity and sorority-oriented student is in eclipse on many college campuses, replaced in significance and even in numbers by socially concerned and involved students who are ready to bear a hand in making their world a little more humane. These students, in large numbers, could help to revolutionize public education. But instead, they seldom even enter a teacher training program. The rigidity and empty formalism of the program may discourage them, or they may be rejected because their pattern of course work is found inappropriate. What is worse, it may never even have *occurred* to these students that teaching might be a career in which they could act on their ideals for a better society.

Of course, the most effective way to attract candidates would be to make teaching a secure, fulfilling, and respectable career. While this would involve organizational changes too broad to discuss here, some measures could be taken at a university to rationalize the recruitment process. First, *every* underclassman on a university campus should be given an opportunity to work productively with school age children or youth. By "work productively," I mean work in *some* context that could be construed as having educative consequences: in a school, a neighborhood center, a YMCA, etc.; consequences that are educative need not be academic ones. In order that this work be seen as worthwhile, it should be *chosen* by the undergraduate, and not simply assigned to him by someone else. The work could be generally supervised by graduate students in the school or department of education.

It could be argued that every undergraduate owes at least this much to his society for the privilege of being able to attend college. Many of these undergraduates will find it personally rewarding to do worthwhile work (perhaps for the first time in their lives), and some will plan careers that they otherwise never would have entered. They will also find such a supervised work experience a most important part of their own general education—especially if the university affords the opportunity (and "gives credit") for discussing this experience with peers and teachers.

Second, the general study of education should be made available to every underclassman on a university campus. No single institution within American culture so dominates the lives of so many people for so long as the schools, yet—almost incredibly,—one usually has to be an education major in order to enroll in a college course that permits the systematic study of education. The situation would be ludicrous were its consequences not so serious. For otherwise well-educated citizens help to destroy their own schools, never having had a chance to understand the institution and the processes they are asked to support.

The monopoly on education courses help by professional schools of education must be broken, so that *all* college students can have an opportunity to study schools. Such a study, of course, must not at-

tempt to ape the fraudulent "professional" courses that only offer pious platitudes about education and that still exist in many teacher training programs. It must, instead, try to show how schools have an impact on teachers, children, and society at large, and how this impact is directly a function of the entire social institution of the school —and not merely of this teacher's technique, or that administrative rule. Such a course might have an infinite number of differences in emphasis, depending on whether its development were assisted by a department of sociology, or of political science, or anthropology, history, or philosophy. Surely a school of education might be a partner in its development, since its own enrollment would be a future beneficiary. The availability of the study of education within a program of general education will also eliminate the need for the so-called "Introduction to Education" courses which have traditionally been offered under the disguise of a "professional" course.

Teacher training. The topic of teacher training is so vast that anything less than the encyclopedic may seem superficial. Yet one generalization will be attempted, and some implications drawn from it.

A statement made frequently by teacher educators at professional meetings is, "we don't yet have all the answers." If professors and administrators really believe this, then why are so many courses and other hurdles *required* in teacher education programs? If there really is some doubt about what constitutes the best preparation for teaching, then students ought to have a little more freedom both in selecting types of pre-professional experience and in designing and evaluating the shape and texture of those experiences.

Because I am not proposing something like a cafeteria model of professional training, I would like to cast this suggestion in a general form. People appear to learn best when they make deliberate choices and then live with the consequences; in this way they come to see how the choices could have been improved. An effective teacher promotes such opportunities for students. It follows, then, that any teacher education program which would make a claim to effectiveness must create conditions whereby prospective teachers can make their own decisions and then take responsibility for them. To be sure, they must be able to make foolish as well as wise decisions, for without the presence of risk, decision-making is only a sham. That undergraduates can make mistakes is an ordinary observation. But that professors and deans, who make so many decisions *for* others, should act as if they were immune from making mistakes is as preposterous as it is presumptuous.

If the above generalization about learning were acted upon, a great many practical changes might result. First, more courses that examine teaching and learning would be offered, but they could be of shorter duration. Students would choose to study at greater length only what they found worth their attention. Some students might not

study *anything* about education at *great* length, since very few people who enter teaching have scholarly tendencies anyhow.*

Secondly, practice teaching could be abandoned. Instead of having an anonymous administrator make a long-term commitment *for* them to do little more than serve as directed lackeys in someone else's classroom, students might instead be enabled to *choose*, from a wide variety of opportunities, to work with children of varying ages and backgrounds for anytime from a month to a year. Such work could extend and deepen the work experience gained in the first year or two of college as part of their general education. Through such varied experiences as can be found in homes, youth centers, clinics, and correctional institutions—as well as schools—prospective teachers will find out much more about what children are like than they ever will by watching and working with them only in school classrooms. They may also find out what kinds of children they would prefer to teach. This important information is rarely revealed through practice teaching, and it is virtually made impossible to get in the brainless but ubiquitous practice of demanding that prospective teachers commit themselves as elementary or secondary majors when they begin their junior year in college.

To make available widely varying opportunities for educational experience does not necessarily create insuperable problems of supervision. Nothing is so wasteful as armies of university personnel scurrying about the countryside checking up on undergraduates. When this practice is mercifully discontinued, supervision will be done by the agency at which a student is placed, and the student will deepen the value of his practical experience by meeting on the campus with peers and talking over similar, practical problems in the company of graduate students who have themselves had both practical experience and some theoretical study of education. It follows from this that no *extensive* program of teacher education should ever be undertaken unless the institution is also able to maintain a program of graduate study in education. Conversely, no program of graduate study in education is likely to make very much practical sense unless it is intimately connected with an extensive teacher education program. It is a self-delusion for a graduate school of education to think that it can "just prepare educational leaders" independent of programs for those who would be led.

Finally, the reading that prospective teachers do about teaching and learning should be related always to practical situations of formal or informal instruction—whether that in which the undergraduates are themselves engaged, or the vicarious practical settings now available in film and videotape. The practice of assigning reading in phi-

*The remark is not intended to be cynical, and can be verified by noting how little reading and research is done by school personnel. This does not mean that prospective teachers should not be *encouraged* toward scholarship. But it does mean that if fifteen years of formal education have not already disposed a person to be scholarly, he is not likely to become so after taking a few courses in education.

losophy of education, or educational psychology, or methods of teaching this or that, independent of practical application or meaning must be discontinued. Until it is, students will continue to read and think mechanically and uncritically, and continue to judge (correctly) their education courses as largely useless. There is nothing very new in this suggestion. More than two thousand years ago Aristotle observed that theory is the attempt to organize, make sense out of, and improve practice. Without the practice, theory becomes only a meaningless game. Surely it is time to catch up to this ancient good sense.

Teacher placement. Schools and colleges of education exercise very little professional sophistication in placing new teachers in jobs. Indeed, teacher placement could probably be handled just as well by the U. S. Post Office, or Matching Roommates, Inc. If he has worked hard and had a little luck, the prospective teacher has finally acquired some knowledge and expertise about teaching; he may even have become disposed to teach. He may be filled with the ideals of his calling: of respect for children and for learning; of dedication to his profession. Then, through a combination of careful inquiry, tentative guessing, and accident, he gets a job. But he will probably find that he is one of only a handful of new teachers in the school, and that he does not know the other ones. His own self-contained classroom heightens his isolation from his colleagues. But when he comes out for lunch or a free period, he will very soon be told by a classroom-worn old-timer (perhaps his principal), "Now you can forget all that theory they taught you at college and get down to the practical business of keeping school." Thus the consequences of accidental placement conspire to break down what schools of education tried to build up.

For a new teacher, placement can come as a disillusionment and a shock. Yet it is the natural result of the way public schools are organized and the virtually total absence of policy by schools of education in the area of teacher placement. To place teachers like this is to deny the need for schools of education. For if young teachers are to be sent willy-nilly, one-by-one, into the schools, why train them? They will probably perform just about as well under *these* initial working conditions after taking a six-week orientation course.

The proposal that follows from this is a simple one: why not place young teachers *in groups* in their first assignments? By doing so, it might be possible to preserve and even build upon what a teacher education program has begun. These groups might be composed of two or three or even a half-dozen graduating students who studied together and who share some values, ideals, and ideas. The group would be the strongest possible source of support in the face of a new and sometimes threatening situation. It would also serve as a focal point to which other, more experienced teachers might relate. It would make it more possible and more practical for the university to maintain some continuing contact both with its graduating teachers and with a widening network of public schools. Through its graduates

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a university can most directly influence the conduct of schools, but only a rational policy of teacher placement can forward this aim.

The administration of schools of education. All of the policies and practices that have been suggested depend for their achievement on some radical changes in institutions which prepare teachers. Since programs have changed so very little in the past, one might well wonder what would have to be done to loosen the cement that keeps the various segments of teacher education so rigidly locked in unhappy immobility. A Platonist might suggest rusticating all professors over thirty, while a more contemporary proponent of change might propose letting the students manage the job themselves. I would like to suggest a less sweeping and a simpler change in the administration of schools of education. It has two dimensions—one of size, and one of control. First, the total faculty involved in any program of teacher education should be kept small enough to be able to talk over what it is doing in a face-to-face setting. This sets an upper limit at about two dozen people. When numbers begin to exceed this, communication breaks down and the least desirable features of a bureaucracy begin to appear. But education is an enterprise the goals of which must always be subject to re-examination and change. A bureaucratic structure, which is by nature unsuited to the constant scrutiny of its own goals, is thus always in opposition to the aims of any school of education. Since most schools of education in the United States have already gone far beyond faculties of two dozen, most of them have become bureaucratized, and most of them have become inefficient and constitutionally incapable of significant change. I propose that they be subdivided, with each smaller unit altogether independent of the others in its program, its budget, and in its student body. Students might initially be assigned arbitrarily to a given unit, and later on be enabled to make their own choices, once each unit had begun to develop its own individuality.

Second, the locus of control of these teacher education units must change. At the present time, and in response to pressures which tend to make private entrepreneurs of individual professors, important decisions of policy regarding teacher education are left in the hands of appointed, full-time administrators. This is universally a disaster. First, in virtue of their training, administrators are less competent to make policy decisions than virtually anyone else on their faculties. It is ludicrous that people who are trained in such areas as school law, school finance, the operation of the physical plant, and perhaps human relations should be making decisions in areas of educational history and philosophy, political and social theory, and theories of learning and instruction. Second, the very career of the full-time administrator depends on his maintaining an operating structure which runs smoothly—just like it did yesterday. Nothing could threaten an administrator more seriously than the possibility of genuine and imminent innovation and change.

Thus there are two reasons for keeping policy-making out of the hands of administrators: one is a function of their training, the other,

a function of their institutional role. Either of these reasons is a sufficient one by itself. Together, they create an overwhelming demand that those who implement and are affected by policies be the ones who make them. This puts primary responsibility on instructors, who in manageably small groups can communicate with each other about programs in teacher education. It also places a responsibility on them to find a role for the active participation of graduate and undergraduate students in such programs, consistent with the degree of experience students can utilize in such participation.

I have touched on four areas related to the preparation of teachers: their recruitment, their training, their placement, and the organization of institutions of teacher education. In mentioning these areas, I have gone beyond the limits of space assigned to me. Yet for all that, one may still ask, what *should* prospective teachers be taught? I have offered no suggestion about this, nor was it my intention to do so. For I believe that is the wrong question. The only answer to it is, *lots* of things should be taught; but not everyone needs to be taught the same things, and probably no one will ever be taught enough. The question of genuine significance is, how shall teacher education be organized so as to permit as many people as possible to function as intelligently as they can in devising programs that make sense to them, without at the same time forcing others to do the same? It is to this question that the foregoing remarks have been addressed.

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CAN TEACHER EDUCATION EVER BE RELEVANT?

Reginald Edwards
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The title allotted to this panel discussion presumes a comparative rather than an absolute judgment. We appear to be talking of a scale of relevancy; placing intervals upon some continuum, rather than, in the modern idiom, classifying all ideas and processes as either relevant or irrelevant. We also appear to be talking of some entity labelled "teacher education." Without an adequate philosophical consideration of these two points (and this has not yet been produced), I make my remarks within a framework which supposes that there is an entity called "teacher education" and that there is a relevancy continuum which can be applied to this entity.

At the outset I would state boldly that teacher education is not relevant, and never can be relevant. Three major assumptions underlying much that is said about teacher education are as follows. (1) There can be a method or system of educating or training individuals to occupy a future societal role. (2) One such societal role is that of teacher. (3) The teacher role has sufficient continuity to permit an individual preparing for it the prospect of making a career in it. In passing, it should be noted that we have two undefined variables, namely, "role" and "career." For purposes of this discussion, these concepts can be accepted in terms of the literature which each has produced.

Admitting the assumptions identified above, it follows that only in a society which is static, so that the role of the teacher is clearly specified, or in a society in which the future is determined by some revealed truths, theological or ideological, can teacher education be definitely related to its objectives. Since we have some clear evidence that, on this continent, society is not static, then teacher education can be relevant only if we can accurately forecast the future, can accurately forecast the role of the teacher at each given date in the future, can so shape the behaviour of trainees that their future behaviour will match the specified objectives, and can conduct retraining programs at any time to ensure that the "match" remains within the prescribed limits.

A famous Canadian academic, Stephen Leacock, speaking of his own doctoral degree suggested that he had been examined and pronounced "full." At lower degree levels we do this also, particularly in teacher education. The award of some certificate, license or diploma, backed by the full authority of some State Department of Education, bestows upon the possessor the right to function as a teacher for all time. I tell my students that they will eventually possess such a di-

ploma and that it is an international passport, of low currency, valid at various discounts in most countries of the world, subject only to such requirements as citizenship, language, health regulations, religion and political conformity, but not to training, nor to successful performance in the role. They can not be required to open another book, to pass any subsequent test on the state of their knowledge nor, generally, in the practice of their art. For our part we speak of a career in teaching but know that one in ten will not be teaching after one year, and one in five will not be teaching after three years.

More precisely, in England, it has been announced recently that "out of 1000 women who enter teaching, only 193 are still doing school work six years later—out of 1000 men who start teaching, only 677 are still doing so after six years." These statistics suggest a considerable loss of investment in training, unless secondary gains to society compensate for the numbers leaving teaching. These same statistics make a mockery of our pretensions that teaching represents a serious career choice. No less ludicrous is our acceptance of a situation wherein many of the long-service teachers possess the lowest qualifications, and in which success is measured by escape or release into the realms of administration and supervision.

Our procedures for the training of teachers,—or the conduct of teacher education, whichever you prefer,—are derived from a previous century. We have been blinded by the success which we have attributed to the nineteenth century. Myths have been allowed to accumulate to such an extent that even educational historians, who should know better, have sometimes been overcome by a nostalgia for a vanished era in an imagined 19th century world. During "that period," Beach avers, "the major battles for public education had been won." So writes Beach, but we owe ourselves a more sober estimate of the past. It is possible to show that the leaders of the common school movement were benevolent despots, who were not concerned with the daily lives of individuals. They produced a system amenable to a rural population, in the days of the expanding frontier. Reform became necessary as industrialization increased and the problems of urban communities multiplied. The itinerant, casual labourer status of the teacher paved the way for the supremacy of the assigned reader, or the text book, which could remain the content of instruction as these traveling purveyors of some modicum of literacy were passed from house to house of the rural communities. The success of the early normal schools has been documented, success obtained despite their lack of adequate educational theory on which to build. What has not been stressed is the "protection" teachers were expected to provide. The Rev. Cyrus Pierce, for example, offered his charges a "protection" which saw him rise at 4:00 a.m. to recharge the wood stoves of his buildings and before 6:00 a.m. to sweep the snow from the pathways and sidewalks so that the dresses of his female students should not be spoiled. This was also a "protection" which insulated them from the society for which and with which they were to work, a *protection* which left them prey to the puritanical restrictions on their

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conduct and liberty imposed by successive generations of school trustees and school boards. The same framework, extended into the present century, prevented teacher education from being relevant in the present or immediate past.

We have been blinded, too, by the success of the "melting pot," the assimilation of the American continent of millions of immigrants from Europe. We have wondered at the largely unilingual people who have grown out of a polyglot ancestry. We have applauded the success of boys from mid-west farms who rose, through normal schools, and a short teaching experience, and via the emerging universities to positions of eminence in the academic world. We have remained ignorant, or unaware, of the struggles of the immigrant children in alien urban environments. We do know that earlier attempts to draw attention to conditions which these immigrants faced, as in Upton Sinclair's novel, *The Jungle*, led not to improvements in those conditions but to a demand for better Food and Drug laws. The individual struggle for growth has been submerged in the story of the general success of the enterprise as a whole. Future historians will perhaps examine individual case histories of the period, taking over from where novelists like Carl Sandburg left off.

The apparent success of the methods and systems employed led to their ever wider adoption, and normal schools flourished. The development of the high school produced a change in one of the assumptions of the normal schools,—that of the relative or complete ignorance of its entrants,—without greatly affecting its procedures. With the increase of numbers of professors of education attention was drawn to the necessity of a theoretical infra-structure. Early professors of education, like Joseph Payne of Michigan, and Joseph Payne of the College of Preceptors in England, did much to give us courses in Philosophy of Education, History of Education and Psychology of Education. However, the influence of the normal school idea submerged these beginnings in a flood of professors concerned much more with craft practices in the schools. The sheer volume of their effort toward fostering and disseminating the craft practices of the immediate past continues massively to keep teacher education irrelevant to the very objectives it is avowedly intended to achieve.

As has been aptly pointed out by Coombs and by others, there is a world education crisis. Of the many aspects of this crisis, I mention only three: (1) the question of universal literacy, (2) of access to secondary education, and (3) the increasing demand for a college education. This year, as a result of U.S. initiative at the United Nations, has been named International Education Year. It comes appropriately at the end of one decade of effort to aid the underdeveloped parts of the world, and at the beginning, next year, of the next Developmental Decade. (These decades make a pleasant break with the more usual five and seven year plans.) Each country is asked to take stock of what has been attempted, and what has been achieved in the past ten

years, and to examine how best it can contribute relevant ideas, practices, money and expertise to the enormous task facing the world today.

The enormity of twentieth century educational problems can hardly be overestimated. Consider, for example, only this: after ten years of great effort, there are more illiterates in the world today than there were ten years ago. It will be well if International Education Year stimulates inquiries into the relevance that our educational systems have to the tasks which we have set for our own societies. Equally salutary would be stimulation to conduct comparative studies designed to help us appraise the relevance of both our diagnoses of the problems of other countries and the prescriptions we have offered for their educational systems. The kind of comparative studies envisioned here is suggested in William W. Brickman's discussion of "Comparative Education" in the *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, from which I now quote:

> "Comparative Education is the careful analysis of educational systems, issues, and problems in two or more countries within the context of historical, socio-economic, political, cultural, religious and other influential factors. Basically, the study of comparative education involves the collection, authentication and interpretation of data on the basis of direct observation documentary analysis, person to person contacts and reflection in as objective a manner as is possible. This means the application of disciplined judgment to a body of abundant and variegated data. A serious study in comparative education enables one to see a problem in regional or global perspective, as well as to comprehend the school system and issues in his own country in broad perspective."

During the past two decades a great many people have struggled with problems of development, or international aid, of modernization of large parts of the world. Anthropologists, sociologists, psychologists, economists, political scientists and educators have all contributed. Many of their efforts have coalesced, and enriched the substantive study of comparative education. But many entered the field in ethnocentric blinkers, seeking to apply to other communities what they believed to be a successful, national model. There was an inner whisper, if not an open assertion, that development and modernization meant becoming like us: "If only all people spoke English, and attended a school like the common school of the U.S., many of the world's problems would disappear." Or, "If only the G.N.P. were increased, and the per capita share of the G.N.P. reached a given level, utopia would be at hand." We know better now. The large scale export of national "solutions" has been less than successful because they were not relevant to the problems of the underdeveloped countries. The leaders of these countries for their part, often saw not development or modernization but independence in a visible way. They wanted international airports, airlines, hotels, U.N. representation and am-

bassadorial privileges. Has our relative lack of success in these endeavors made us any more concerned with critical inquiry into the relevance of our own education? I think it has. The techniques we have so painfully learned to begin to apply to the educational systems of other countries can also be applied to our own. One question asks whether we have reached the limits of our ability to pay for further expansion of our educational system. Congress has recently provided an interim answer to this one. A second question asks who sets the limits to the expansion of educational opportunity. This question raises the whole issue of societal involvement in decisions regarding its own future, which simultaneously impose debtor obligations on the more distant future society to pay for the immediate future of our present society. A third question, one of a different order, points inquiry into the technological revolution to determine whether it is inevitable that its pace will increase, and to clarify its relation to economic growth and societal decisions about the future.

From the point of view of the present panel discussion of teacher education we are, or should be, concerned with some delineation of the future of society, the place of teachers in that society, and the methods of ensuring that they are able to fulfill the role assigned to them, which is to say, we are concerned with making teacher education more relevant. Let us look first to the society of the future, assuming that there is a future.

To my knowledge, the most impressive recent attempts to forecast the future are those made by members of the Hudson Institute. One of their publications, *The Year 2000*, is well known, and in it there is an especially illuminating chapter on "The Post-Industrial Society," which, it may be noted incidentally, was included in Servan Schreiber's *The American Challenge*. The Institute's predictions represent no simple extrapolation from data of only one or two kinds. The authors identify, rather, a long-term, complex "multifold trend" comprised of some thirteen inter-related components. Their methodology has been partially checked by working from 1900 data, to forecast 1933 conditions and 1967 conditions, and also using 1933 data to predict the same 1967 conditions. We may have some fair assurance that the method is applicable, though the projections may not necessarily be "surprise free." They have foreseen a long-term, multifold trend towards:

1. Increasing sensate cultures (empirical, this-wordly, secular, humanistic, pragmatic, utilitarian, contractual, epicurean or hedonistic cultures).
2. Bourgeois bureaucratic, 'meritocratic' democratic (and possibly nationalistic) elites.
3. Accumulation of scientific and technological knowledge.
4. Institutionalisation of change, especially the aspects of research, development, innovation and diffusion.
5. Worldwide industrialisation and modernisation.
6. Increasing affluence and (recently) leisure.
7. Population growth.

8. Urbanization and (soon) the growth of megalopolises.
9. Decreasing importance of primary and (recently) secondary occupations with a growth of tertiary and quaternary occupations.
10. Increased literacy and education.
11. Increasing capability for mass destruction.
12. Increasing tempo of change.
13. Increasing universality of the multifold trend.

Now, what of the teacher? Although I see new techniques for the induction of learning, I can also see that some functions such as teaching will continue to exist. But there will be increasing cybernation in what will increasingly become a learning society.* There will be an erosion of the middle class values of a work-oriented, achievement-oriented and advancement-oriented society; instead, sensate, secular, humanist and self-indulgent values will become primal. The tendency towards the adoption of such values in society will render the present teacher education even more irrelevant than it now is. Only the bureaucratic tendencies, and the power presently accorded to organized groups, whether teachers or autoworkers, will prevent the realization of the full extent of their irrelevance. The idea of a career pattern involving no further training can no longer be assumed.

A teaching career may come to mean several (possibly non-related) episodes of "teaching" interspersed among several periods of training or education. The tertiary and quaternary nature of employment will emphasize skills of communication and inter-personal understanding, which at present are no more than minimal components of teacher education.

If teacher education is to approach relevance it can only do so by matching the teacher role against a limited extrapolation of what society will be. Teacher education is currently a process from Kindergarten through college; a great many modifications will need to be made throughout that process. Tinkering with the final two or three years is not likely to help much. If we wish to make teacher education more relevant, we must also, if not first, make changes in the schools. In a slightly different context, Gagne has set up the hypothesis that "Effecting change increases in difficulty as the vehicle of change becomes more remote from the impact of change." If we start in the lower schools, perhaps we shall eventually improve teacher education and change the behaviours of professors of education. In so doing we shall have changed the characteristics of those who become teachers.

At the moment, the most promising techniques at our disposal seem to arise from what has become known as "systems analysis" with or without behavioural shaping connotations. I have some hesitations

*See: *Education For A Learning Society*, National Society of College Teachers of Education [Society of Professors of Education], Annual monograph number 3, Howard E. Tempero, Editor (Lincoln, Nebraska: NSCTE [SPE], 1969).

about complete concurrence, when I see the errors and distortions which enthusiasts proliferate. I recall that the followers of Herbart institutionalized some of his ideas into five formal steps,—the systems analysis of another age. Eventually they became no longer relevant as our understanding of the learning process changed. Equally the institutionalization of progressivism helped the decline of more progressive treatment of children in schools. Perhaps only the bare bones of systems analysis should remain: that is, diagnosis, treatment, prognosis in cyclical order. Attempts to match future teacher education against a projection of society a limited time ahead might indeed make teacher education more relevant. Persevering with "more of the same," mere tinkering with the present system, and lack of both good theory and sound knowledge can only reinforce my first premise that teacher education is not relevant, and is unlikely to become more relevant.

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MAKING TEACHER EDUCATION MORE RELEVANT TO CHANGE

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As an educational psychologist, I would like to share with you some of my thoughts and reactions to the title of this symposium. While it is obviously an important topic, quite vital to the times, I find it a difficult one to pin down because of its nebulous character. In addition, I believe that the word "relevant" is irrelevant. It tends to cloud the issue; it is an emotionally charged term, the accepted jargon of youth today. For example, the president of the student senate at the University of Massachusetts recently dropped out of school in the middle of his senior year, citing as his reason that the four years of his formal educational experience at college were generally irrelevant to his life—and to these times. What he was implying, of course, was that his educational experiences at college, indeed throughout his life, did not prepare him adequately for living in a society during a time of dynamic change—that his educational experiences had not prepared him to cope with the problems which face mankind: the war, economic and political inequities, pollution, overpopulation, to cite only a few. Obviously this student's decision represents an extreme reaction to the imagined and real inadequacies of his education. However, his example brings to the fore some very real, crucial problems which face all of us today. And we must confront these problems; we must cope with them.

I agree basically with those who think that we have to change society. But to make effective changes, we must change our educational system—the educational establishment. Why do I say this? I maintain that our system of education is archaic and that our system of training teachers is obsolete. Despite great quantities of educational research and scholarship, most education practice today consists of the age-old assign-read-recite approach. Students learn very early to "psych-out" their teachers and professors, to decide upon what teachers expect and to give it to them. This is not necessarily worthwhile learning; at its best it represents only one kind of learning.

All of the students participating in the panel this morning stated essentially that the teacher educational curriculum and teacher training experience did not adequately prepare them for the classroom. This assessment is nothing new. Teachers have been voicing it for generations. Many, perhaps most teachers presently in the field are still voicing it.

There is one phase of the teacher training that most teachers approve. Research, too, reveals it as most beneficial. It is, of course, student teaching. And why not? Process predicts process. The more

experiences a prospective teacher has which approximate the real life situation, the better the training. The more closely the training resembles the actualities for which it prepares, the more relevant it seems to be. That this proves true should come as no surprise to educators. We have long relied upon previous performance, or reports of previous performance (grades) as a criterion for selecting graduate students. We know that the most valid predictor of academic success in college is a student's high school performance (grades). But how should we interpret this information? The fact that student input or past performance explains most of the variance in the prediction of academic success from elementary level onward indicates to me the archaic nature of our educational system.

What does this mean in terms of teacher education? To me, this suggests that we have to take a systems approach which capitalizes upon the notion of process predicting process. A systems approach got us to the moon. There is no reason why we can not utilize the same approach for teacher education. We have the essential tools, techniques and hardware necessary for a systems approach.

At this point it may be useful to state briefly what is meant by a systems approach. The first step in a systems approach is deciding upon goals and objectives. In doing this, we must first conceptualize our goals and then operationalize them in terms of behaviors. Neither the conceptualization nor the operationalization are simple tasks; however, both are vital as a first step in a systems approach.

The second step is deciding upon the treatment or training procedures which might be used in accomplishing the goals and objectives stated in step one. These training procedures should approximate real life situations with attempts at integrating learning theory. Where appropriate, training procedures should include the use of technological developments such as video tapes and computers. Microteaching, although still in its earliest stages of development, already has given us some indication of the effectiveness of technology in teacher training.

The third step is evaluation. Evaluation means a process of measuring the degree to which behavioral objectives have been achieved. It also means measuring the effect that various training procedures have upon different people. In this way, individual differences are taken into account.

Hearsay and conjectural interpretations are not admissible in the empirical, rigorous approach to evaluation. It is only in this way that we are enabled to assess the strengths and weaknesses of the training procedures and thus able to modify them. One frequent criticism of innovative programs in teacher training is that they are slapped together without sufficient attention given to rigorous evaluation.

A systems approach model is now going into operation in the School of Education at the University of Massachusetts. The cornerstones of the program rest upon developing competencies based upon performance criteria in three basic areas: content, behaviorial skills, and human relations. Content includes such areas as language arts,

mathematics, science, social studies and the like. Behavioral skills include various operant approaches to classroom management and the direction of learning. Human relation skills refer to the various personal dimensions such as genuineness, positive regard, empathy, which supposedly optimize individual learning. Another aspect of the program is the establishment of various instructional strategies in order to attain any one of the various performance criteria. Assessment based upon performance criteria is made initially, prior to entry into the program, and then reassessed at various stages during the program in order to determine both the teacher trainee's level of performance and the effect of the various instructional alternatives or strategies.The program can be modified and intensified depending upon the goals of the individual trainee. For example, one trainee may wish to work with ghetto or disadvantaged children which would be likely to require certain modifications and specializations within the framework of the program. Other kinds of special training would probably be given a trainee who wished to teach in middle class suburban areas. Under these specialized situations teacher trainees' educational experiences, gained through the use of performance criteria, should more closely approximate the situations in which they will be working in the future. The University of Massachusetts' new program, although still in its beginning stages, is pointed in the right direction, I believe, and it seems to hold great promise toward making teacher training more relevant.

At this point I would like to touch upon some of the major problems affecting the development and adoption of systems analysis approaches toward teacher training. These problems fall into five related categories; as I see them, they are: teacher trainees themselves, professors of education, the state of the art (i.e., what we know about learning and instruction), school administrations and community acceptance.

Students become teacher trainees for a variety of reasons. Some want to become good teachers. Many are highly qualified and motivated; many are not. Women sometimes use a degree in education as an insurance policy, something to fall back upon should future conditions require them to work. This interpretation is supported by the fact that less than twenty percent of female graduates in education are in the system two years after graduation. Some students are attracted to the field of education as one area wherein they can have some effect on which way society goes. Kohl, Kozol and others have popularized this notion through their writings and lectures. While I regard it as a positive force precisely because it results in attracting bright, concerned students to education, I have one major concern. In their desire to create change *now*, some of these students tend to reject any kind of systematic, empirical evaluation. They have a tendency to overemphasize the gut-level, emotional aspects of learning with a corresponding rejection of hard-headed, hard-nosed approaches toward changes in education. In one of its extreme forms, there is a turning inward that is cloaked in a kind of simplistic religious mysti-

cism or, equally impervious to verification, there is a resort to astrology. The proposals of *I Ching* and Mier Baba are examples of these doubtful directions. Many of these students are concerned with finding out who they are and where they are, which is to say that they are in the midst of an identity crisis. The result of this condition in some trainees is a refusal to consider objectively systematic, rigorous approaches toward change in education. Systematic approaches take time to research and implement and, obviously, changes are needed immediately. Nonetheless, I am convinced that for long term effects, more empirically rigorous approaches are necessary.

Another problem area is comprised by the professional staff at schools of education, who are responsible for teacher training programs. Many professors of education are resistive to change. While many of them are concerned with the inadequacies of the program, they, too, are caught up by the system. Even the younger staff members find it difficult to make changes,—not only have they been taught by the same archaic methods, they also find that the contingencies of reinforcements in the system often do not allow for viable change. In many of the leading schools of education, the emphasis often is upon publication. The models held up for graduate students to emulate are usually scholars, whose emphasis, of course, is primarily upon the production of knowledge. While the production of knowledge is an important function of any good school of education, the output is sometimes only remotely related to teacher training. Professors often are hired and promoted on the potential for, or the demonstration of, research productivity and, consequently, less energy may be devoted to teaching and to developing viable programs of teacher training. I often wonder what would happen if just twenty or thirty percent of professors' energies were devoted to teaching and to teacher training, applying the rigor of their scholarship to their teaching. The intended implications of these remarks are that there must be a change of contingencies for tenure and promotion,—that teaching and teacher training must also be rewarded. Further implications pertain to the need for development of adequate methods to evaluate teaching and training programs. To recognize the immensity of the measurement problem in this area should be to recognize a challenge, not a signal for retreat. Perhaps the most important problem in developing a viable systems approach in teacher training is the need for an echelon of staffing different from that occupied by evaluation experts, technicians and their aids. A need exists for middle echelon people whose task is to carry through training programs. One of the most important endeavors at schools of education in universities should be the development and evaluation of teacher training programs. These programs then could be packaged and disseminated.

A third problem in developing a systems approach to teacher training programs involves the relationship between what we know about learning and development and what goes on in the field. There is a large gap between basic research, what goes on in the laboratory, and educational practices. What is needed is a much more systematic

approach of research to fill these gaps. There needs to be increased communication and interaction between the basic researchers and the applied researchers. They have a tendency to work in isolation from one another although, in fact, each poses important problems for the other. A related difficulty is the fact that very little controlled research and systematic evaluation goes on within the school systems themselves. The schools need to have educational research specialists just as every school today has guidance counselors. These research specialists (many would be educational psychologists) would act not only as resource people for administration and teachers but would be responsible for conducting psychological research which might narrow the gap between basic research and instructional practices going on in the schools.

At last area, which needs some mention although minor in importance, concerns school administrators and those seeking greater community control within the schools. A systems or other innovative approach to teacher training might produce teachers who would utilize instructional techniques different from the age accepted modes of instruction. Additionally, some communities cry for greater control over teacher placement in their schools. Both of these groups, school administrators and community leaders, may need closer communications with work of schools of education and the results of researchers.

Obviously I have only touched upon the areas most directly affected by the changing of teacher training programs. They are all complex and a great deal of effort and some degree of risk would be involved in their implementation. Nonetheless, we must continue to search with renewed vigor for viable approaches to teacher training. A systems approach offers the greatest potential overall for attaining this goal.

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MAKING TEACHER EDUCATION MORE RELEVANT: A HISTORICAL VIEW

Jonathon Messerli
Hoffstra University

Dr. Messerli's paper was not available for publication.

ABSTRACTS AND SUMMARIES

Papers presesented at SPE sectional meetings
and at the meetings of affiliated societies,
in Chicago, February 25-27, 1970.

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III. SPE SECTIONAL MEETINGS
A. SOCIAL STUDIES

SOCIAL STUDIES ABROAD

James K. Uphoff
Wright State University

ABSTRACT

A sight/sound/talk review and discussion of the social studies instruction found in Finland, Soviet Union, Czechoslovakia, and Spain was the topic of the 1970 Social Studies Sectional of S.P.E. This session, always run very informally, was presided over by James Uphoff of Wright State University, Dayton, Ohio.

Dr. Uphoff had recently visited all four countries and was joined in the discussion of the slides and tapes by two fellow travelers: Dr. Art Ferguson of Northern Illinois University and Dr. Chu of Indiana University, Pennsylvania. Questions, answers and general discussion characterized the evening with everyone participating.

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B. EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY: Group One

THE ROLE OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY IN THE ELEMENTARY TEACHER EDUCATION MODELS

by

John F. Feldhusen
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This symposium on the Role of Educational Psychology in the Elementary Teacher Education Models focussed specifically on four of the nine models: Michigan State University, the University of Georgia, Syracuse University, and the University of Wisconsin. These four models, as well as the other five, were developed according to the following guidelines which were specified by the U.S. Office of Education in its request for proposals:

1. Teacher-training program goals in terms of expected and measurable teacher behaviors; the rationale for each of the desired behaviors.
2. Practices for selecting teacher trainees for the program.

3. Professional (in college/department of education) learning experiences and content to be provided trainees in the following categories:
   (1) Theory
   (2) Subject matter related to elementary school curriculum
   (3) General approaches to instruction and specific teaching
   (4) Preclassroom clinical experiences (e.g., simulation, role playing)
   (5) Student teaching
   (6) Teaching methods, including tools, techniques, and group practices or methods of individualizing instruction to be employed by the college faculty in presenting the various kinds of professional content
4. Relationship of professional sequence (not necessarily courses) to the entire undergraduate program: (a) when a particular activity would be introduced into the undergraduate program; (b) what percentage of the total undergraduate curriculum it would comprise; and (c) what nonprofessional courses (outside college/department of education) would be required/recommended
5. Types of content/experiences appropriate for on-the-job (in-service) training for graduates of the model program, as well as the kinds of materials and methods to be used
6. Faculty requirements and staff utilization pattern; in-service training program for college staff
7. Evaluation and feedback techniques to be used throughout and at the end of the program to determine to what extent trainees have acquired the essential teaching behaviors; follow-up studies of program graduates
8. Multipurpose management and evaluation system, with data storage and rapid retrieval capabilities, to permit continuous diagnosis of student progress and frequent restructuring of the trainee's learning experiences
9. Plan for continually and systematically assessing, revising, and updating the program. (Clarke, 1969)

Nowhere in this entire set of specifications is instruction in educational psychology, measurement, or child development called for, although it is conceivable that some or many aspects of educational psychology could be introduced under 3(1), theory. But, of course, theory could be drawn from other disciplines such as sociology or philosophy. Thus, it is not surprising that S.C.T. Clarke, in a review of the models concluded that ". . . educational psychology seems to have had little influence on them (the models)." (Clarke, 1969)

The essential tone of the models was set by the following summary which resulted from a preliminary meeting of consultants to the models development project:

> Any proposals developed for the program should include a rationale, a viable theory, specified objectives, and evaluational components. In addition, concern should be directed to individualized instruction,

> simulation, self-study, the use of multi-sensory media, multiple approaches to the problem of educating elementary teachers, aspects of team teaching, realistic reality-testing laboratory experiences, built-in development, demonstration and dissemination phases, built-in systems and costs analyses, in-service education for all personnel conducting such programs; and the results should be transportable as models to other elementary teacher-producing institutions. (Clarke, 1969)

The elementary teacher education models are obviously to be severely technological in orientation. Nowhere is there any serious concern for the new humanism emerging in education, sometimes loudly and forcefully expressed by student activists. Among the things which are most distasteful to adherents of the new approach in education, is the rigid, mechanical quest for instructional efficiency which is so clearly implied in these teacher education models.

Seemingly on the positive side, the models represent ambitious, even noble efforts to implement our new technological capabilities in teacher education. Unfortunately, we still know so little about how to use the new technology in education in ways that are practically successful. Much of the new technology, notably computer-assisted instruction and its predecessor, programmed instruction, simply does not make the grade. While a new medium such as programmed instruction might have proven instructional value for subjects in laboratory-like evaluations, such evaluation does not guarantee that students and/or teachers will accept and like the new medium when it is put to daily use. The elementary teacher education models will undoubtedly require years of effort and much modification and possibly major change before they can be made to operate successfully as technological systems.

The models are, of course, large, theoretically consistent instructional units. It appears that a massive effort was made to draw in much of the best current expertise in elementary teacher education. For their success in being theoretically consistent and comprehensive, the developers should be commended. The fact that educational psychology or psychology in general was forgotten to a great extent is a subject for speculation. Perhaps the omission stems from recent pessimism about the value of educational psychology and/or psychology in teacher education.

Educational psychologists have not demonstrated empirically that training in their discipline produces a better teacher. Of course, we really have little or no validation of any part of the teacher education curriculum. What we do have in the way of empirical evidence is the results of much work in micro-teaching and mini-courses, which indicate that these very vocationally oriented training efforts can pay off in improved teaching capability. But our old faith that a theoretical knowledge of gestalt psychology, acquired in an educational psychology course, could improve the teacher's performance in the classroom has been badly shaken. The battle cry of our day is "relevance" which for many students and teacher educators means direct concern

with the problems of teaching, not with theoretical formulations in the psychology, sociology, or philosophy of education.

Now, after all these relatively pessimistic comments about the role of educational psychology in the elementary teacher education models, we must acknowledge that the four universities represented in this symposium have skillfully woven an educational psychology or psychology component into their model. Educational psychology is one of five major curricular areas of instruction in the Michigan State model. The Georgia model is notable for its elaborately detailed specification of learning outcomes and the fact that over one hundred outcomes are in the area of educational psychology. Wilford Weber points out in his description of the Syracuse model that not only is there a substantial educational psychology content in the Syracuse model, but also the overall program of the Syracuse model and most of the others reflect systematic application of psychological concepts and principles which are the result of the research of educational psychologists. Finally, the Wisconsin model contains a large segment of instruction in educational psychology in the areas of development, learning, and measurement.

These elementary teacher education models, when funded and implemented, should provide an excellent opportunity, through the built-in evaluation component, to provide more solid empirical evidence concerning the instructional validity of educational psychology in teacher education programs.

In his review of the models, S.C.T. Clarke referred to psychology and/or educational psychology as the "queen" of education's parent disciplines but lamented educational psychology's absence, as he saw it, from many of the models. Perhaps through its salient role, at least in these four models, and through transforming operations which really call for a tremendous transition in educational psychology's contribution, the discipline may have a rebirth as "king" of the disciplines in teacher education.

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THE EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY ELEMENT OF THE MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY BEHAVIORAL SCIENCE ELEMENTARY TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM

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Introduction. The behavioral sciences have been the source of knowledge and principles from which the Behavioral Science Elementary Teacher Education Program (BSETEP) has been developed. The program reflects an active effort to focus behavioral research on edu-

cational problems and the development of pre-service and in-service programs of teacher preparation. The major disciplines included under the rubric of behavioral science are anthropology, sociology, social psychology, psychology, economics, and political science.

It should be noted at the outset that the educational psychology component (human learning, as it is referred to in the proposal) is only one dimension of a much larger and complex organizational design, which includes six overlapping and interconnected components. Each is described briefly in this paper.

Major goals. The teacher preparation model with its detailed educational specifications is designed to achieve three major goals:

1. To produce a new kind of elementary school teacher for the schools of tomorrow—one is a basically well-educated individual who:
   a. Engages in teaching as a clinical practice,
   b. Understands human learning, its capacity and its environmental characteristics, and
   c. Assumes an active role as a responsible facilitator of social change.
2. A systematic introduction of research and clinical experience into the decision-making process as a basis for continued educational improvement.
3. A new kind of laboratory and clinical base upon which to found undergraduate and in-service teacher education programs.

The clinical behavior style mentioned in 1.a. above refers to particular modes of thinking and behaving which permits a teacher to use his student-related experiences as a basis for learning how better to teach. It is a style which is described as having six phases: describing, analyzing, hypothesizing, prescribing, treating, and observing and evaluating consequences. The last activity, observing and evaluating consequences of the treatment administered, in turn leads to the first, describing the changed situation, which begins a recycling of feedback.

The laboratory and clinical base envisioned as the third goal is designed so that students can encounter youngsters in both school and out-of-school situations. The major agency for this activity will be a clinic elementary school established to provide pre- and in-service experiences. Other agencies which will be involved include summer camps, recreation programs, YM or YWCA's, and settlement houses.

Overall program organization. In an effort to expose teacher candidates to the comprehensive character of organized knowledge as it relates to human behavior, the MSU teacher preparation model is organized around an interdisciplinary approach. The program is chiefly an undergraduate program with one year of internship. However, provisions for advanced study are built into the model to provide opportunities for a practicing teacher to acquire a more sophisticated understanding of the variety of convironments within which

children develop and to refine his diagnostic, prescriptive, and evaluative tools for more effective functioning in the total school-community complex.

Explicit content and instructional recommendations for implementing the program are presented as short, single-purpose experience modules. Each module is directed toward the accomplishment of a particular behavioral objective, is reported and filed in a uniform manner, and can be used for individualized instruction. These modules are grouped into clusters which, for purposes of administration and communication to the academic community, are described as "components."

The modular approach implements the particular values expressed through this project:

1. The value of specifying behavioral objectives
2. The value of precise description of instructional experiences
3. The value of multiple-path programming to provide for the specific needs of different trainees
4. The value of providing for curricular change through continuous testable small-scale alterations rather than sporadic general upheaval.

More than 2700 modules were written and included in the program. These modules have been stored in a specially designed computer-processed information retrieval system, and can readily be retrieved in their most current form for analysis, revision, or removal.

Five major curricular areas are explicitly described in this teacher preparation model. Educational psychology (human learning) is one of these areas. The contribution of the educational psychology dimension of the model can be best understood in relation to the other four curricular areas, each of which will be briefly described.

Clinical experiences. This begins in the first year of training and extends through a year of teaching internship. It is an experience designed to acquaint students to the real world of teaching and to facilitate their skills and competence in working with children. To do this, progressive intensity of pre-professional contact with children and schools occurs through five phases: 1) tutorial; 2) career-decision seminar; 3) analytical study of teaching; 4) teamed teaching; 5) internship. Clinical procedures will be analyzed and practiced through both simulated and actual situations. In the last phase of pre-professional education, internship students will be assigned full-time to elementary schools as classroom teachers under the supervision of intern consultants, each of whom works full-time with five interns.

As the student moves through the clinical experience component, he may choose to specialize in one or more elementary school subjects or in a particular age level. A new teacher role, the *subject matter specialist*, has been identified and is trained for by the program. The model also provides training for two prominent auxiliary roles which are emerging as important when instructional staffs are differentiated.

The first, an *associate teacher,* works as a paraprofessional member of a teaching team. The other, a *media specialist,* is responsible for procuring and preparing media resources.

General liberal education. This aspect of the model provides a broad basic core for the program. Students learn to understand the role language plays in a society, to comprehend the physical and biological aspects of the world, to understand different cultures, to become more sensitive to their own role in modern societies, to grasp relationships as expressed in mathematics and to conceptualize man's potentialities. Three components are included in this phase: humanities, social science, and natural science.

The humanities concentrate on the methods of the artist and the writer, especially their perceptions of reality and their methods of communication. The social science component seeks to develop the methods for problem-solving and decision-making, while the program of natural sciences is aimed at delineating underlying principles by viewing the scientific method as a process affecting the whole of contemporary culture.

Scholarly modes of knowledge. This differs from General-Liberal-Education in two essential ways: the content in Scholarly Modes of Knowledge is more directly applicable to teaching in the elementary school, and the modes or styles of inquiry of scholars are stressed. Ideas from current experimental elementary programs form the basis for content selection. Among the components are linguistics, communication, children's literature, fine arts, social science, natural science and mathematics.

Professional use of knowledge. This dimension of the teacher preparation model is designed to provide an opportunity for the student to learn how to translate knowledge into educational action and instructional strategies. The component parts of this area include reading, language arts, social studies, science, and mathematics.

Educational psychology (human learning). Although this section addresses itself to the vast arena of human learning as it might be defined in an undergraduate or graduate foundations of education sequence, the outlines and teaching modules related to it should be viewed as beginning and not as end states. The continual spawning of new ideas, findings, results, and speculations resulting from the happy coupling of education and behavioral science research can quickly turn today's innovations into yesterday's old ideas. With this in mind content outlines and constructed teaching modules were constructed to reflect those research findings, points of view, and issues judged to be most current and relevant by a team of professional educators representing child development, clinical psychology, home economics, educational philosophy, cultural anthropology, elementary education, and educational psychology.

Implicit assumptions behind the educational psychology component. As in any undertaking of this kind, several philosophical and behavioral assumptions are implicit in the approach. Not all of these

can be made explicit. Let us, however, in the very beginning note those assumptions which need visibility and clarification.

Those persons responsible for working on the educational psychology component began their task with a simple research based assumption, namely, that there is *no one best* way of learning any more than there is one best way of teaching. Rather, behavioral science research suggests that there are many *best* ways of both learning and teaching. It depends on the teacher, the student, the subject, the grade-level, and indeed, the moment.

In addition, the educational psychology team was aware that different instructors operate and teach from different philosophical and theoretical points of view and that it is possible for two instructors to be equally successful (in terms of student attitude and achievement) even though they might have diametrically opposed views about the nature of human learning and behavior. It was clear, then, that although they might do justice to a few they would do a disservice to many if they assumed the presumptuous stance of trying to document, support, or advocate one position or point of view over another. In keeping with these assumptions, the contributors to this section attempted to synthesize and integrate research based findings and experts' opinions which reflect multiple theoretical and philosophical points of view.

In sum, the educational psychology component focuses on the learner and the daily cognitive-affective forces and experiences which are likely to influence his behavior both inside and outside of school. Analytic tools for studying human behavior, drawn from the behavioral sciences, furnish the foundation for the program and are basic to this section. Through more sophisticated use of these modes of inquiry, and through a better understanding of the research in this area the prospective and practicing teacher can become a more effective teacher.

Criteria for content and module selection. Obviously no single volume can include all there is to consider and know about human learning. In order to select content and teaching modules which allowed greatest flexibility and use in the development of experiences related to human learning, the following criteria served as guidelines:

1. The material must provide a basis for and understanding of all human learning.
2. The material must provide the basis for an understanding of the significant conditions, forces, or factors that stimulate, inhibit, or affect human learning in any way.
3. The material must enable a teacher to make reasonably good predictions about the outcome of learning activity.
4. The material must be a potential source of hypotheses that can be tested in the classroom, as well as in the laboratory, in order that our understanding of the teaching-learning process may continue to develop and grow.
5. The content outlines must reflect more than a single point of

view by cutting across the traditional academic discipline boundaries of behavioral science research.

The content outlines. Five content outlines were included in educational psychology section. Each outline was designed and assembled so that it could serve as the framework for establishing specific course content at both the undergraduate and graduate level. The outlines are regarded only as starting points, as somewhere to begin because they frequently will have to be modified and updated to keep pace with advances in our understanding of human learning and behavior. Content outlines, in the order in which they occur in this paper, are as follows:

1. Behavioral Science Research Based Study of the Growth and Development of the Pre-School Child. (Human Learning I)
2. Behavioral Science Research Based Study Focused upon Educational Psychology. (Human Learning I)
3. Behavioral Science Study Focused upon Social-Philosophical Foundations of Education. (Human Learning I)
4. Advanced Behavioral Science Research Based Study Focused upon Educational Psychology. (Human Learning II)
5. Advanced Behavioral Science Study Focused upon Social-Philosophical Foundations of Education. (Human Learning II)

Since the first three outlines deal with material typically associated with educational psychology, some overlapping of content occurs. However, this was not regarded as needless redundancy because it is quite possible for college sophomores and graduate students to study similar material, but at different levels of depth and understanding, and also with different goals in mind.

Summary statement. The educational psychology component of the teacher preparation program is an important dimension of a multi-disciplinary approach to teacher education. It recognizes that there is more than one best way to teach and to learn and that what may be effective with one student could be ineffective with another. It is only as a student is able to relate his knowledge about educational psychology to his broader general-liberal education and to his clinical experiences in actual and simulated classrooms that he will eventually be able to translate what he knows into teaching strategies most likely to encourage maximal learning. The Michigan State Teacher Behavioral Science Elementary Teacher Preparation is specifically designed to facilitate that possibility.

THE PSYCHOLOGICAL INFLUENCES IN THE SYRACUSE UNIVERSITY MODEL ELEMENTARY TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM

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ABSTRACT

In a recent review of the elementary teacher education models by a professor of educational psychology, the following comment was made:

> One aspect is rather puzzling. Many contend that psychology is the queen of the behavioral sciences in its contribution to education; that learning theory prescribes teaching and that the real problem is to discover more about how students learn, which will in turn determine how teachers must act, which will in turn specify the preparation they need. In the light of this kind of thinking, which used to be widespread in education, it is surprising that the models, in general, don't recognize the queen; educational psychology seems to have had little influence on them (Clarke, 1969, page 285).

While it is not the specific purpose of this brief paper to attack that position, I believe that examination of the model programs does not permit such a conclusion. Indeed, with the Syracuse University Model Elementary Teacher Education Program (Syracuse University, 1968) as a referent, I hope to show through a few examples that the reverse is the case.

The contributions of psychology influenced the Model in two important ways. On the one hand, much of the content to which the student is exposed are concepts, principles, and experiences drawn from various areas of psychology—educational psychology, child psychology, social psychology, humanistic psychology, and developmental psychology—a consciously pluralistic program. On the other hand, the instructional program itself represents the careful systematic application of well-established psychological concepts and principles to the learning process.

The professional program suggested by the Model consists of eighty-three instructional modules. Of these, thirty-six are strongly psychological in their orientation. Modules range from one having to do with notions about reinforcement which calls for the student to demonstrate the use of behavior management techniques to another having to do with classroom social-emotional climate which calls for the student to describe the social-emotional parameters of classroom groups. And modules range from one dealing with educational objectives for affective pupil behavior which calls for the student to prepare a set of affective objectives for the child he is tutoring to yet another dealing with the differentiation of instruction for individuals within groups which calls for the student to conduct strategies of individualized instruction.

A careful examination of the Model suggests that it is possible for one to go on and on citing examples of instructional modules which incorporate inputs from psychology. These examples are far too numerous to detail here. The point is clear, however: the various areas of psychology appropriate to the process of educating teachers are very well represented in the Syracuse Model. This is the result of conscious effort on the part of the team which designed the Model—a goodly number of whom were educational psychologists. It was their thought to bring to the pre-service teacher the best the present state of the art has to offer.

While the concepts and principles of psychology constitute a sizable portion of the program content, it is perhaps the application of those concepts and principles to the instructional process prescribed by the program which is the more important contribution from psychology. Particular emphasis was given to principles derived from educational psychology.

The major role of the educational psychologist in this regard was the specification of educational objectives, the design of instructional materials and procedures appropriate to those objectives, and the design of procedures allowing analysis of the student's attainment of those objectives. Beyond this, the educational psychologists on the team brought their expertise to bear in the design of a program which provided for student self-directedness and specialization, program individualization and personalization, self-pacing and modular scheduling, the utilization of the new techniques in teaching (microteaching, role playing, simulation, and behavioral analysis, for example), clinical experiences, and the utilization of formative and summative data in evaluation.

The complexity of these elements and their integration make it impossible to describe them in any really meaningful way here. Those who wish to know more about the manner in which psychological principles were systematically applied in the teacher education models should carefully examine the Syracuse Model and the other models as well.

In a recent article on the functions of educational psychologists, John C. Flanagan (1970) asserts that they have two major roles: (1) to improve the understanding of the learning process and to pass this information on to those responsible for facilitating learning in others, and (2) to use psychological techniques to improve the quality of educational programs designed to foster the ability of teachers to assist students to learn. He goes on to state that educational psychologists have largely failed in the second of these roles. I believe that the teacher education program models are fine examples of instances wherein educational psychologists have played both roles well.

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GEM's IMPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

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ABSTRACT

We find a way to do what we think is important—From this basic assumption about human behavior the GEM's came to be.

It has long been evident that when we concern ourselves with the application of knowledge, our current teacher education programs appear neither efficient nor effective. Few students see applications of the knowledge imparted from the lips of their wise and studied professors. Due to this inability to see the relevance of lectured information, the student turns to new and more interesting channels and simply does not assimilate (he may not even accommodate) the information given.

"Facts ain't nothing till I've done something with 'em." A fifth grade Negro boy made this observation just three days ago in one of my classes. I believe he was telling my students that learning has two crucial phases: (1) the acquisition of information, and (2) the discovery of its meaning. These are the two major concerns that I, as an educational psychologist, had in the development and evaluation of the GEM's.

After careful examination of information about the "nature of the learner" principles of learning and the need for defined performance-criteria for teachers, a design for implementation was made. This model or unit is defined as a proficiency module (PM). The PM is a published guide, based on a variety of aptitude-treatment interaction data, designed to direct student-learning under conditions most conducive to each student's own peculiar style. The teachers, materials, structures and students are matched in order to create optimal individual learning situations. These PM's provide a way of insuring that the student acquires the content expected, that he exemplify the behavioral skills necessary for presentation competency, and that he acquire the human relations skills necessary for professional decision-making. The PM's avoid duplication of content and allow each student to move at his own pace. The issue in the PM is not time but performance behaviors.

Each PM includes:

1. Classification,—a brief description of the area of concern
2. General directions,—what the student is asked to do

3. Content,—specific facts, concepts, laboratory experiences, etc.
4. Prerequisites,—the knowledges, thought processes, skills and attitudes necessary to proceed
5. Pretest. (All PMs have a diagnostic evaluation as a means of determining the student's initial status. Based upon this information, the student will be assigned the following.)
6. Learning tasks. (These consist of multiple series of learning activities designed for specific types of students.)
7. PM post-test. (This is a diagnostic unit based on the specific performance criterion of the PM. Each student must complete the units diagnosed before leaving the PM.)

After the student takes the pretest, an analysis of the data determines whether he should go to a remediation clinic, pursue a specific learning task for that PM, or move on to the next PM. This procedure allows for a complete individualization of instruction.

To provide for complete individualization of instruction, the GEM's include five kinds of laboratory facilities. These are:

1. General Resources Laboratories, i.e., libraries, listening laboratories, computer instruction centers, reviewing room, visual-aids center, etc.
2. Instructional Unit Central Resources Laboratories; these laboratories house respectively all learning materials and resources directly related to one or another of the several PM's, e.g., articles, films, models, programmed materials, chemicals, instruments, etc.
3. Instructional Unit Field Laboratory Facilities; these provide opportunities to observe children, to engage in activities with them in classrooms, health clinics, museums, etc.
4. Clinical services; these are provided by each instructional unit and provide remedial, and/or rehabilitation assistance
5. Laboratories in group interaction; all students engage in seminars, discussions, and other activities for each PM. With the assistance of video-taping, micro-teaching, and other technologies, opportunities are provided for the student to acquire understandings of self and others,—to acquire the proficiencies necessary to diagnose, prescribe, select the appropriate resources, make the treatment and then evaluate.

The GEM's area of performance specifications of special interest to education psychologists include: development, personality, social behavior, learning, measurement and evaluation, research and statistics.

The GEM's assume that learning is dependent upon:

1. What the learner brings to the transaction
2. What the teacher brings to the transaction
3. The climate of the learning situation
4. The interaction process

5. The utilization of learning (application) in the life of the learner
6. The establishment of the process of continued learning.

This program is designed, then, to insure the acquisition of knowledge and experience conditions that allow for the discovery of personal meaning, thereby giving relevance and significance to the whole of teacher education.

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EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY IN THE WISCONSIN ELEMENTARY TEACHER EDUCATION PROJECT

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ABSTRACT

In October, 1967, the United States Office of Education requested proposals describing "educational specifications for a comprehensive undergraduate and in-service teacher education program for elementary teachers." The initial guidelines specified in part that each program should indicate objectives, focus on individualized instruction, and incorporate a systems analysis.

The Wisconsin Elementary Teacher Education Project (WETEP) is designed to meet these criteria. WETEP utilizes modern technology (a) to provide students with immediate access to information, (b) to provide improved communications between campus instructional activities and laboratory/clinical activities in the schools, (c) to make available to students a greater variety of learning experiences than has been previously possible, and (d) to provide for an instructional management system which organizes and transmits data relative to student progress. Moreover, WETEP includes a cybernetic systems model designed to interrelate specified behavioral objectives with effective methods of achieving them.

A cybernetic system portrays the interrelationships of the integral parts of WETEP. The system contains four basic components: (1) an *input component* which provides for the selection and entrance of appropriate teacher education candidates; (2) an *operations component* which provides for the teaching-learning experiences of the students; (3) an *output component* which consists of the intern experience and the full-time teaching career for the WETEP certified teacher; (4) *a feedback component* which supplies the control and guidance of students progressing through the system and for the continual assessment of the system itself.

The basic content of an elementary teacher education program includes introductory studies in education, study in principles of human growth and learning, and in field or subject areas. WETEP meets

these needs through such carefully structured elements as: Orientation, Educational Psychology, Communications, Mathematics Education, Science Education, Social Studies, Art Education, Health Education, Safety Education, Music Education, and Physical Education.

The educational psychology element centers on developing in students an understanding of principles of human development, learning, and measurement and evaluation through flexible, individualized programs of study. It is designed to offer them the opportunity to attain their educational objectives in courses of study that facilitate particularized sequencing, independent rates of progress, and easy access to an exceedingly wide variety of instructional materials. Students with special interests, for example, may use the resources of the element for developing study programs that enable them to pursue these interests and to maximize the effectiveness of the time they invest. Thus, through utilization of technological resources, the element unburdens both instructor and student from routine classroom tasks and enables them to affirm the humanized factors in education.

Educational psychology is closely integrated with other major aspects of the WETEP. It services such elements as science, mathematics, communications, health, and special education. In turn, the impact on the learning of educational psychology is enhanced through student participation in these other elements and especially through clinical and laboratory experiences.

S. C. T. Clarke recently reviewed all of the model elementary education programs in the *Journal of Teacher Education*, and included among his observations the following statement: "it is surprising that the models, in general, don't recognize the queen; educational psychology seems to have had little influence on them." The review, however, was prepared prior to the inclusion of WETEP among the proposals. As this indicates, educational psychology is an integral and critically important element of WETEP, and if Clarke's appraisal is accurate, educational psychology is more prominent in WETEP than it is in any other proposal.

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C. EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY: Group Two

MICROTEACHING AS A FEEDBACK SYSTEM IN TEACHER EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

Microteaching was developed at Stanford University in the early 1960's to enhance student achievement in teacher education programs by means of providing them with controlled teaching experience.

In microteaching the teacher presents a brief lesson to a small student group. At the lesson's close the teacher discusses the lesson with another adult. In the lesson, emphasis is placed on practicing a specific teaching skill. Presently, a sequence of teach, critique, and reteach characterizes microteaching.

Allen and Ryan (1969) state five propositions which are at the core of microteaching. First, microteaching is real teaching. Second, microteaching reduces the complexities of normal classroom teaching. Third, microteaching focusses on training for specific skills. Fourth, microteaching allows for increased control of practice. Fifth, microteaching involves considerable knowledge-of-results. This latter proposition will be the major focus of this paper.

Sources of feedback involved in microteaching include the teacher's reflections, the microstudents, and supervisor, and the videotape. In every teaching situation the teacher has reflections on how the lesson went; however, if such reflections are unaided by other feedback, such reflections can be influenced by the teacher's biases. In microteaching feedback from students, supervisor, and videotape act as checks on these reflections. Such checks may provide the teacher with more insight into his own behavior.

Teachers appear to need training in discerning cues from student behavior; the microteaching model could possibly provide such training. When an attempt was made to train microteachers in discerning such cues, some change in the desired direction was noted (Reed, Van Mondfrans, Smith, 1970). The unique aspect of student feedback in microteaching is that feedback is focussed on specific teacher behavior.

The supervisor's role is to aid microteachers in identifying aspects of the lesson which could be improved. Allen and Ryan suggest that the supervisor should concentrate on only a few points of the lesson. Shively, Van Mondfrans, and Reed (1970) report that supervisor's suggestions based only on live observations of lessons were not as effective in altering teacher behavior as were suggestions based on either audio-tape or videotape. Audio-tape based suggestions were the most effective.

These findings suggest that more research should be done on the use of videotape in microteaching. The use of videotape has been considered optional in the model (cf., Flanders, 1969; Allen and Ryan, 1969). The critical issue is not should videotape be used, but how best to use it. The need for feedback is not optional.

The microteaching model focusses a large amount of feedback on critical aspects of the lesson related to the skill being practiced, and therefore, the teacher has a chance to implement changes immediately with feedback to evaluate the effect of such changes. Specific and well-documented feedback on specific teaching behavior is at the very heart of microteaching.

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INTERACTION ANALYSIS AND THE COMPUTER-ASSISTED TEACHER TRAINING SYSTEM

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ABSTRACT

Interaction analysis (IA) can provide objective, descriptive information about classroom behavior in terms of both verbal and nonverbal interaction along cognitive and social-emotional dimensions.

Teacher training programs have used IA data as a coded and summarized description of what went on in the classroom from which the trainee and teaching supervisor can establish goals for subsequent teaching. Such a procedure has been found to be more effective in changing the behavior of student teachers than is traditional supervisor feedback. Cybernetic theory supported by research on programmed learning and skill acquisition asserts that immediate knowledge of results—including the correctness or incorrectness of the response and the amount and direction of error—contributes to rapid learning. However, data collection and analysis in IA are time consuming and tedious and require that feedback to the teacher be delayed and, therefore, retrospective.

Seeking to correct the limitations of IA for teacher training, Dr. Melvyn Semmel and his associates have developed the Computer-Assisted Teacher Training System (CATTS) in which information based on the coded IA summary of classroom behavior is immediately fed back to the teacher so that modification of teaching behavior is possible in a context approximating that within which it originally occurred. CATTS provides immediate feedback to the teacher by means of a visual display on a cathode ray bute (CRT). The observer codes the classroom verbal interaction by pressing one of ten buttons

on a button box. The coded signals are relayed to a computer and are processed instantaneously by a program which enables the computer to feed information to the CRT on the percentage of the total interaction devoted to the use of selected category or categories of the observer system. A TV camera focused on the CRT display transmits the image to a TV monitor in the classroom, allowing the teacher to monitor his verbal behavior through a closed-loop feedback system.

Studies by Schmitt (1969), Kreider (1969) and Weaver (1969) have supported the effectiveness of CATTS feedback for behavior control and change, although the relationships among variables such as the presence of CATTS feedback, subject matter content, and the teaching behavior being modified were very complex.

In addition to its use as a vehicle for teacher training through direct feedback into the classroom, CATTS has made possible several changes in interaction analysis research:

The need for fixed-interval coding was eliminated since the computer could record the length of time between coding moves. This allowed coders to record only changes in interaction;

It is possible to utilize several coders simultaneously, each coding independently and using very different coding systems. The computer can then integrate information on these diverse types of interaction into a whole reflecting the temporal relationships of the original classroom interaction;

Through a system called Consensus Coding in which several individuals simultaneously code a given interaction using the same descriptive system, several measures of reliability other than the one recently criticized by Mitchell (1969) can be derived. These include measures of intra-observer reliability, inter-observer reliability for individual coding moves, and reliabilities of individual categories or subsections of the coding scheme. Statistical procedures for analyzing the effectiveness of the clusters of variables and patterns of interaction in relation to certain criterion variables such as patterns of learning must be developed.

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USE OF A COMPUTER SYSTEM IN PROVIDING FEEDBACK TO TEACHERS

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ABSTRACT

The increasing need to facilitate the learning process by helping teachers or prospective teachers to be more effective implies a number of potential activities. One of these is a process that enables an observer to record in a reliable manner teacher behavior in the class-

room and then to use this record to show a teacher what his behavior has been. This paper describes a way in which computers were used to facilitate this process of feeding back to the teacher what had been observed through the use of interaction analysis data. Interaction analysis data in this project refer to any data collected through the use of category systems in which each category defines some kind of observable behavior. The structure of the overall interaction analysis data collection and processing system developed under the sponsorship of the Michigan-Ohio Regional Educational Laboratory is described in this paper. The categorization techniques permissible in this project allows one to use several category systems to label each piece of behavior.

The data processing scheme begins with an observer looking at pieces of behavior which occur in the classroom and the assigning of a numerical code to each piece of behavior. At the moment the observer has decided on the appropriate code for a section of behavior, he records this code through the use of the touch telephone. The code's tone is transmitted, by telephone line, to a storage device at the computer center. After an observation session, the teacher and/or consultant go to the room where the school's computer terminal is housed. Depending on the type of output desired, the appropriate instructions to produce this output are keyed into the computer terminal. The instructions are then sent to the computer center. The computer finds the specified program and immediately processes the recently collected raw data. This is then printed out back at the school's terminal. This output, consisting of summaries or various displays of the data, can then be viewed by a consultant and/or the receiver of the feedback (e.g., teacher) at a convenient location (e.g., conference room).

The model developed in this project provides the teacher with almost instantaneous feedback. In other words, by the time the teacher walks from her classroom to the terminal room, the output summaries can be available.

The report of the project describes a complete system for providing instant feedback to teachers concerning coded observations which take place in classrooms. Also in this report ideas are presented about various categorization systems, the computer outputs from such systems, and some possible uses of the output.

The feasibility of schools and teacher training institutions being able to provide the type of feedback described in this paper is becoming increasingly prevalent. Thus, some schools and many teacher training institutions already have the hardware necessary for the described mode. All that is necessary to complete the model or system is the software (computer programs) which have been outlined in this paper.

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ANONYMOUS FEEDBACK SYSTEMS IN COLLEGE CLASSROOMS

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research was to explore the relationship between participation in the college classroom and academic achievement and to evaluate a student-professor interaction system which allowed the student to indicate anonymously his confusion to the lecturer. Four separate studies were conducted, each utilizing two college sections covering the same material and taught by the same instructor. In each study, the anonymous feedback system (AFS) was utilized differently. To evaluate the effectiveness of the AFS, unannounced quizzes, announced hour examinations, a weighted summation of all graded work throughout the semester, or all three were used as dependent variables.

In the first study, it was found that if the teacher received the feedback (via the AFS), student performance was higher on hour examinations and weighted summation but not on unannounced quizzes. Also in the class in which the feedback was not available, the students able to give feedback did worse on hour examinations than those who were not able, but the opposite was found in the class in which the feedback was available to the instructor. Students used the AFS more frequently in the class where the teacher did not receive the feedback.

The second study asked whether the 'anonymity' factor was important. The AFS could be arranged so that the instructor could or could not identify the confused student. The students in the class in which the instructor could identify the confused students outperformed the anonymous class on all three dependent variables.

The third study compared one class with the AFS with another class with no new equipment as to achievement and student verbaliza-

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tions. It was found that the class with the AFS did not significantly differ from the regular class on all three dependent measures of student learning. However, the AFS did seem to have a differential effect on student talk as the class with the AFS asked more questions relatively than the class without the AFS.

The last study examined the effect of continually testing a class during a lecture. This appeared to have a slight negative effect on student learning.

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D. ADMINISTRATION, SUPERVISION, CURRICULUM

RADICALIZING EDUCATION: WHAT ARE THE PROSPECTS FOR THE FUTURE?

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ABSTRACT

This paper examines the assumptions which have fueled the assault on established practice in the university. The central tenets of the radicals which are critically considered are "confrontation," "participatory democracy," and "relevance."

The author observes that the act of confrontation in the university "challenges authority, plays upon grievances, and has an emotional attractiveness for a broad political spectrum of individuals." He criticizes the tactics employed as largely inexplicable in a rational framework for they would mean "abject surrender in many cases of the entire structures and complete reversal of traditional patterns of operation." With only a dim outline of a program for replacement, the confrontation becomes itself both the means and the ends.

The author secondly observes that the decision making process in participatory democracy has been turned into manipulation and deception by the leaders of the New Left. He asserts that the decision making does not use canons of objectivity, recognize the place of expert opinion in decision making, or dedicate itself to the rights of free inquiry. Through the basic value of "doing your own thing" there is a rejection of hierarchical decision making. Moreover it places criteria of personal emotional satisfaction above any ground rules governing the social conduct of the individual in society. The price of such a commitment seems to be a paranoid suspicion of authority. In the rejection of orderly discussion there is a concomitant dampening of the voice of opposition.

The author views the use of "relevance" as a classificatory term "as much a personal commentary as it is a social judgment." He rejects the label as too abstract and subjective.

The author recognizes the movement is not to be dismissed. He observes that the educational process which is supposed to lead to an intermeshing of the individual and society is "conflictual and dissonant for large numbers of youth and especially for a high percentage of those with whom we thought we were most successful." Their criticisms suggest implementations of more adequately developed programs which are structured to general objectives formulated to give coherence to the direction of the student's experience and which would order a compartmentalized curricula where the organization is lodged solely in separate subjects. Also there is a need for the student to have a continuing relationship with a faculty member who provides emotional support as well as intellectual guidance.

In general the radical approach to curriculum disdains procedures of problem solving, free inquiry, use of evidence, acceptance of group decision making and the open marketplace of opinion. Since their ideology sanctions use of immorality, it "leaves the voice of reason outside the circle of counsel when conflict arises." This approach evidences a lack of knowledge of history.

More specifically he criticized "purposive destruction of civility in public dialogue." The desire for confrontation is a "defiance of seeking a road of mutuality, a currying of conflict rather than resolution." The emphasis on personal search "overlooks the state of knowledge in the scientific disciplines and what is required of the individuals to master a field and make a contribution to an area." It is precisely this development of competence which is necessary to grapple with the larger issues of racism, poverty, war, and pollution. He also faults participatory democracy with industrialization and urbanization. The radicals, while possessing only a vague program are seen as raising fundamental questions about human emotional needs in educational program planning.

IV. AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL STUDIES ASSOCIATION
A. SECTION ONE

A SYSTEMS APPROACH FOR A DISCIPLINED ORGANIZATION OF A SOCIAL FOUNDATIONS OF EDUCATION COURSE

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ABSTRACT

In our modern period, the traditional guidelines providing direction and meaning to the educational enterprise have been called into serious question. The disintegration of an accepted public philosophy, and the general breakdown of a cohesive value system lending significance to human activity, are important philosophical realities which have helped undermine educational guidelines. Unfortunately it has been very difficult for the educational operation to reconstitute itself on a rational basis, and we are witnessing a neo-romantic move into the subjective world of "doing ones thing."

The philosophical breakdown has been intensified by the rapid pace of change and the communications and information innundation which have buffeted the educational operation. Students going to school in this modern period often view their attendance as an interruption of their education because educational institutions have not been transformed in accordance with modern perspectives and needs.

One significant revitalization is taking place in perceiving the constitution and objectives of curricula. The traditional approaches of using formal education as the means for acquiring information and memorizing facts is being recognized by more and more educators as an antiquated approach suitable for a pre-mass media society. There is growing emphasis on education as providing transferable skills and inquiry modes, and as a way of rationally exploring and developing the world of values.

The traditional course in social foundations of education with its heavy reliance on bits and fragments of insight from the social sciences and humanities is in particular need of this type of revitalization. In most cases, this course consists of fragmented materials without any internal logic, discipline or rationality. At some institutions, this course has been turned into an amorphous, directionless operation reinforcing the anti-discipline approach of the neo-romantics.

At best, most of these courses serve as the drain basin catching and passing on whatever viewpoint happens to be around. At worst, some of these courses are being taught by the "doing your thing" teachers who view these courses as catharsis for whatever they happen to discover in themselves during the semester.

The fragmented reality of our times accentuates the difficulties and problems that are normally involved in teaching a foundations of

education course. Even commendable attempts to organize the material in some significant manner often results in bits and pieces of information and value joined together in some transitional eclectic form.

It is my contention that we who teach this basic education course to future teachers have a responsibility to rationally think through our problems and develop some type of logical coherent discipline from our objectives and available information and other inputs. This discipline should provide a coherent rational organization of content and process relevant for an introductory education course, and meaningful for our modern students. We owe this to our students, many of whom find the social foundations of education course as currently taught, a reinforcement of their fragmented view of education; we owe this to the profession currently being called upon for a greater role in educational decision-making, but in many cases, inadequately prepared for this role of professional involvement; and we also owe this to ourselves.

We are at a disadvantage because few of us teaching this course majored in social foundations of education for our doctorates, intensifying the problem that exists with an already amorphous "discipline." We do, however, have the advantage of being in a sufficiently flexible position to develop and structure a content and process for our discipline without the traditional constraints of forgotten "truths," and archaic organizational patterns.

I suggest the necessity of carefully delineating the "course mission" and "enabling objectives," recognition of the course "inputs" coming from the social context, developing models of suitable course strategies, and using appropriate tests and measurements to determine if we have achieved our objectives. I also suggest using a model for increasing the dialogue leading towards the development of a foundations of education discipline.*

The education of teachers, despite many valuable innovations, still requires extensive vitalization and modernization. This can be aided by educationally sound and current modes of perception, as well as appropriate psychological and logical organization. The designing of effective courses in the Social Foundations of Education presents an opportunity to develop and implement a relevant first step. If we succeed, the course can also provide a guide and challenge for modernizing other aspects of teacher education programs. We have the means and capability of turning an otherwise fragmented experience into a vital learning situation, and it is my hope that we will accept the responsibility.

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*These steps have been followed in the author's edited book of readings: *A Systems Approach to Social Foundations of American Education* (New York: MSS Educational Publications, 1969), 618pp.

TEACHING: THE CONTINGENT PROFESSION

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ABSTRACT

The principal argument of this paper is that required professional courses fall into a common pattern which should be useful to teacher preparation. Professional education can be divided roughly into four categories: (1) studies of whatever organismic structure, individual or social, is indigenous to a particular function; (2) studies of factors needed for maintaining normal functioning and for coping with malfunctioning; (3) studies of environment-function relationships; and (4) studies of specialized areas of practice such as internal medicine and pediatrics, criminal law and corporation law, subject matter specialism and school administration.

How can the foregoing help us? First by definition: learning is the vital function with which schools are concerned. It is a generalized term for organismic acquisition of information/behavior in a given environment. Teaching is the practice of acts hopefully designed to induce learning. Education is the conjunction of learning and teaching.

Second, by organizing schools of education according to the pattern revealed by other humane professions. Thus, the heart of teacher preparation would consist of studies probing the nature of learning. Emerging from this core would be studies of factors maintaining and impeding learning. Environmental courses would concentrate upon the political-social-economic-geographical-historical elements which influence, and are influenced by, learning. Finally, there would be studies directed to such specialized practices as physics teaching, administration, guidance and counseling, music supervision, the teaching of reading etc. This latter is where apprentice teaching should take place, for students need to get their practice teaching in the field for which they prepare. In a truly clinical situation the studies probing learning-teaching would have access to facilities used for apprentice training in order to observe and experiment, but attention and time should not be diverted from scholarly theoretical studies. Balance must be preserved.

PROPOSED DEVELOPMENTS IN COMPARATIVE PHILOSOPHY AND THEIR USE IN THE FIRST COURSE IN EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

While those of us who consider philosophies of education in early education courses tend to assume that our efforts stimulate prospective teachers to think critically about the problems and discourse of education, our young students continually tend to produce non-synthetic eclecticisms rather than indications of critical thinking. They show us that the primary result of our work is not sophistication of thought, but is actually broad, if non-critical, appreciation of several philosophies and ways of philosophizing.

We correctly conclude that the work young students often submit is philosophically illegitimate. Yet, the persistence of our aim to stimulate critical thinking reveals that we have failed to contemplate the significance of broad and non-critical appreciation of perspectives and ideas. We have certainly not reinforced student comments and writings which suggest an appreciation of this sort. In fact, we have consistently attempted to cause students to question the value of such a non-critical orientation.

However, a lack of definite philosophical perspective is basically sound in terms of teaching in our multi-cultural classrooms. By now we have witnessed the alienation and social inadequacy arising from attempts to enculturate students into the orientations of the dominant society. We have seen the idea of a "melting pot" as the non-functional myth it has been and is. Perhaps, if we reinforced the broad appreciation of prospective teachers, they might be more inclined to encourage their students to develop according to their respective cultures.

Happily, research in the field of comparative philosophy indicates a means of reconstructing the subject matter of philosophical elements of early education courses so that an outcome of broad, even uncritical, appreciation is philosophically legitimate. Scholars in the area of comparative philosophy, ranging from positivists to whole-view metaphysicians and representing several broad areas of the world, have typically appreciated cultural orientations other than their own, realizing that they have no objective perspective from which to judge points of view conditioned by other cultures. Many of them have set a precedent for those who wish to reconstruct the content of philosophy of education by approaching their area studies ethnologically—dealing with implicit philosophies of cultures as well as the written philosophies of individuals. (After all, persons are only vaguely associated with many philosophies of India.) Some have even *localized* the scope of their studies, considering at least some of the implicit

views and perspectives of cultures in the United States. This suggests that orientations toward and ideas concerning education covered in studies of philosophy of education can be representative of several of the more prominent American cultures. Students might more easily see the point of their studies while achieving a type of broad appreciation that is philosophically legitimate.

In an early course in education—even the first course—such philosophical materials could be included in a section entitled: "The Multi-Cultural Setting of American Education." As materials exhibiting *contentions for* various cultural orientations toward education, their juxtaposition with more descriptive cultural studies may help to reduce the possibility of students mistaking the aims of cultures for a total picture of different ways of life.

Hopefully, the inclusion of materials that are generated according to the spirit of ethnological studies in comparative philosophy will legitimize the tendency of young students to appreciate, broadly, different ideas and perspectives, and will contribute to the progress of multi-cultural education.

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B. SECTION TWO

ATTITUDINAL RESEARCH AND THE STUDENT OF FOUNDATIONS OF EDUCATION

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and

James M. Brine
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ABSTRACT

Approaches to the introductory course in the study of education have been receiving a great deal of attention within our area and our literature. At the same time we have become increasingly aware of student interest and involvement in the shaping of curriculum. James J. Shields and Wayne Urban, responding to Shields, have discussed the need for a more relevant, analytical and more integrative approach to the study of education. We have experimented with one approach in an attempt to provide analysis in the introductory education course. Our approach has been to select a variety of research techniques including interviews, questionnaires, participant observation, and to use these techniques to examine attitudes about educational issues. We have selected important questions and issues related to education and have attempted to examine them in lecture, discussion, and readings as well as by means of research methodologies. Concurrently, we have involved students in the very *processes* of research. Students have learned about research techniques, discussed the nature of the hypotheses involved in research design, the execution of research, and have interpreted these activities in terms of educational issues.

Our assumption was that the analytical approach to the study of education should include student analysis of issues and at the same time encourage student involvement with researchable attitudes. To act in accord with our assumption, we selected approaches and materials which would yield data. But more importantly, we posited that student analysis of research would provide for:

a. a theoretical frame of research methodology applicable to educational issues.
b. student involvement in the analysis of these issues.

Shields' argument that social and psychological foundations should not be separated has been amply confirmed by the outcomes of our initial endeavors. It is our contention that the integrative approach holds great promise and the analytical component has been a much needed ingredient.

Some experiments that have proved highly successful are described below. They provide for historical, present and future reflection and analysis of issues and encourage active student involvement in the process.

Example 1. Concepts of race and prejudice can be useful in the analysis of self and institutions. This past year, "foundations" students identified prejudice and racial issues as current and vital. Readings and discussion regarding prejudice and attitudes followed. Among the readings were Allport's *The Nature of Prejudice* and Mary Ellen Goodman's *Race Awareness in Young Children.* In an adaptation of Allport's work on perception of others regarding size of minority groups, the following hypothesis was to be tested: THAT COLLEGE STUDENTS ON CAMPUS WOULD OVER-ESTIMATE THE SIZE OF THE BLACK POPULATION ON CAMPUS. Factors such as residential patterns were also to be examined. The class, after much discussion, hypothesized that students living nearer to the Black student social center would be more accurate in estimating numbers than the students living further from the Black social center. A representative student research team asked a random sample of students the following questions: 1. How many black students do we have on campus? 2. Where do white respondents live? Data was recorded and reported back to class. Discussion was held concerning the proximity of minority and majority groups and perceptions of numbers of minority by majority groups as well as the implications of proximity as it related to bussing, integration, housing patterns and schooling.

The initial issue was a localized one. By means of readings and selected segments of research, the issue was generalized and seen in broader national and international perspectives. The student became aware of the analytical base of information to which he could refer. The activities of compilation, analysis and summary wherein the student relates his findings to broader implications for education, provided a vehicle for self-awareness. In a sense, this is applied research; it is oversimplified, yet it lends itself neatly to empirically based explorations of attitudes.

Example 2. In another brief experiment, students were presented with a highly prejudicial statement, and were asked to construct a profile of the individual who might have made such a statement. Students were told they need not respond, if insufficient information was provided. In a sample of five hundred students enrolled in education foundation courses, collected over a period of three years, only three students indicated they did not have sufficient information to provide a profile which included sex, age, occupation, education, and socio-economic status data. When students collated the responses and a composite profile was prepared, it became dramatically clear that a majority of students were responding from a base of perception rife with stereotypes.

The statement and resultant class profile is a stimulant for discussion of teacher attitudes and perhaps more importantly, it is at this point in time that many students begin to see themselves holding many stereotypes. The obvious next step in class is to look at stereotypic responses in schools, curriculum, and the institutions in our society.

Example 3. The Rokeach Dogmatism Scale (form E) was administered to two hundred and fifty-four foundations students at the University of Massachusetts in 1968. The results showed that these prospective teachers were neither more dogmatic nor less dogmatic than five different groups of Ohio State University students reported in Rokeach's 1960 book. The students were also asked to indicate their religious preference and subject area of specialization. There were differences, though statistically non-significant, between dogmatism scores of students in these areas. For instance, the student group with no religious preference was more flexible (less dogmatic) than those groups which indicated allegiance to Catholic, Protestant, or Jewish faiths. In the different subject areas of specialization, the students who were specializing in mathematics had the highest dogmatism scores as a group. Those planning to teach English had the lowest dogmatism scores as a group. These results were reported back to the class groups who initially served as subjects by responding to the Scale and questionnaire. The students not only paid close attention to the results and comparisons but also discussed them with an intensity which reflected a strong degree of personal involvement. They were especially interested in the comparisons between their own groups and the out-of-state groups. They were also stimulated by a new awareness of differences in attitudes registered by their peers and the knowledge that these different attitudes tended to form constellations of attitudes with subject matter and religious preferences.

The examination of values and attitudes, we believe, should be part of the on-going foundation experiences in the preparation of professionals. The new sociology and the new social scientists are becoming vitally interested in the issues of our times; relationships between research, human development and survival are being examined. It remains to be seen if the psychological foundations as well as the social and philosophical and historical aspects of educational studies can incorporate empiricism and make such topics as socialization, role, attitudes and values an integral part of both the researchable and reflective approaches to human issues and concerns in educational studies.

TEACHING TABOOS–INVESTIGATING SOME SELECTED SITUATIONS

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ABSTRACT

This paper is a discussion of teaching taboos among selected Navaho elementary and secondary school students in the Southwest. The term "taboo" is used here as it is defined by Kluckhohn and Leighton in their book, *The Navaho* (1962), i.e., "things to do and not to do," "thou shalt not" and "thou shalt."

In parts of the Southwest there are schools which enroll multi-cultural, multi-lingual student populations. Children and youth in these schools bring with them Indian, Spanish, Mexican, and Anglo-American heritages including Indian, Spanish, and English languages. Ethno-education in these schools should take this diversity into positive account.

Teachers in multi-cultural schools of the Southwest must not only respect students, they must have knowledge of their ethnic groups; they must also be insightful and empathetic in relation to ethnic differences. Essential to the fulfillment of these conditions is knowledge of ethnic taboos.

An ethno-education approach to schooling would be reciprocal in its operation: students would be enabled to adjust to school; the curriculum would be enriched by the inclusion of ethnic studies. Students would be enabled to recognize the merits of their subcultures while at the same time experiencing the dominant culture in a less shattering way.

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C. SECTION THREE

BUREAUTECHNOCRACY: AN EMERGING ORGANIZATIONAL PATTERN

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ABSTRACT

Organizational theorists tell us that every age breeds organizational patterns peculiar to its social complexities. The bureaucratic model, for example, with its principal origins in the early stages of the so-called Industrial Revolution, was an appropriate response to

societal demands for even-handed managerial practices, and industrial-economic need for order, standardization, predictability and efficiency. It was a suitable answer to the values and exigencies of the Victorian era.

Today, bureaucracy is out of joint with the demands of advanced industrialized society. Increased interdependency among societal institutions and processes, and the vigor with which scientific technology has crept into every corner of human activity have created a social environment so frenzied and unpredictable that the bureaucratic cast of human organization is taking on the pallor of the dying. And just as bureaucracy evolved out of the needs of a radically new age, so today new organizational shapes are emerging in response to a host of incomparable different social complexities. I call one such pattern *bureautechnocracy*; an incipient form on its way to becoming the dominant organizational model of our time.

The purpose of this paper is to explore the origins and nature of bureautechnocracy and to raise some questions for social-philosophic inquiry into contemporary schooling. Four major socio-cultural trends, perceived as spelling the end of bureaucracy, are examined vis-a-vis the increasing enfeeblement of bureaucracy and the emergence of a new organizational pattern, bureautechnocracy.

Bureautechnocracy is defined as a pattern of social organization and management wherein some features of the hierarchized, pyramidal, authoritative model of human organization (bureaucracy) are linked with standardized, rationalized means (technology) with the overall aim of achieving control, flexibility, and efficiency in dealing swiftly with novel and unanticipated tasks. The unique features of this organizational pattern are examined and some implications for social-philosophical inquiry into schooling are discussed.

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AN EXAMPLE OF THE DOCUMENTARY FILM AS A RESEARCH TECHNIQUE IN THE SOCIAL FOUNDATIONS OF EDUCATION: A STUDY OF THE LEGACY OF MASSIVE RESISTANCE IN PRINCE EDWARD COUNTY, VIRGINIA

Peter Hackett and Jennings L. Wagoner
The University of Virginia

ABSTRACT

To increase student involvement and to broaden the active dimension of the basic course in the Social Foundations of American Education at the University of Virginia, special projects in lieu of traditional reports and papers are encouraged. The course itself is devoted to an examination of contemporary social-educational trends and problems and is characterized by an attempt to integrate con-

cepts from the several disciplines which collectively contribute to the field of social foundations of education.

Several special projects undertaken by students have been of such merit as to have become added sources in the study of certain issues. A trio of students, for example, recently developed a slide and tape presentation on "Desegregation in Nelson County, Virginia." A tape entitled "Message from a Blackman" detailed the recent history of the civil rights struggle and the personal reactions of a black graduate student to the present racial climate in this country. Concern with youthful alienation and the possibilities of a counter-culture led another group of students to develop a tape, slide and film report on "Life in Twin Oaks," a Skinnerian experimental community located in a nearby rural county.

The project detailed in this paper was undertaken by two undergraduate students who wanted to investigate the current educational and social situation in Prince Edward County, Virginia. This county, situated in the state's "Black Belt" region, had become the symbol of white defiance to school desegregation during the period of Southern "massive resistance." Rather than bend to court ordered desegregation, the power structure in Prince Edward closed the county's public schools in 1959. A private school foundation was established for the white children of the county and while legal battles were waged in the courts for the next five years, schooling for black children was practically abandoned. It was not until 1964 that the public schools in the county were finally reopened, and then with only a handful of white students sprinkled among the predominately black public school population.

In the aftermath of this social and educational disaster our two students initiated their research project. In advising these students we began for the first time to comprehend the extent of the problems connected with making a social foundations documentary film. We stressed the necessity of a methodical research of all avilable books and journal articles on the Prince Edward situation. In suggesting the use of a "segmental" case study approach for researching this problem, we defined the critical variables operating in the community including the press, school board officials, black and white power structures, parents, and the pervading economic conditions. The various factors we considered began to relate to possible film sequences which coincided with the "segmental" aspects of this case study. We also began to discuss the difficulties associated with interviewing potentially hostile respondents. Interviews were arranged with various public and private school officials as well as with black and white community leaders. Upon their initial visit, our students convinced various school and community officials of their integrity and seriousness of purpose. Their obvious knowledge of the local situation impressed those with whom they spoke, and there was generous cooperation with the students during their four filming trips to Farmville. Over twenty interviews were held, and field notes were used to write the script for the sound track.

On a cautionary note, it has been our experience that these kinds of projects are extremely difficult to carry out without tremendous student effort and considerable faculty involvement. This particular film involved nearly two-hundred man hours from inception to completion.

Nevertheless, we suggest the value of encouraging this kind of research venture because of its varied possibilities. Students involved in this type of research gain immensely from their background study as well as from their field experiences. The challenge of conceiving and carrying through to completion such a project is of definite merit. And perhaps even more important, the results of such efforts can add a vitality to class analysis of the dynamics underlying current social-educational problems. In this way, the active dimension of the social foundations approach reaches even those class members who are not themselves directly involved in field study.

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D. SECTION FOUR

THE UNDERGRADUATE: A VIDEOTAPE LESSON

Ralph Hunkins
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SUMMARY

Produced by: Instructional Resources Department of SUNY, Plattsburgh.
Featuring: Ralph Hunkins and "Huffy Dustman," the undergraduate.
Sound: narration by Hunkins, folk songs, special sound effects.
Images: movies, photos, illustrated camera cards, animation, special effects.
Length: 36 minutes.

Substance. A theory of knowledge is developed. That the course will be organized according to this theory of knowledge is demonstrated. A preview of the course is presented and the interrelatedness of the units is discussed.

Scene sequence. With the song "Mrs. Robinson" playing in the background, an undergraduate from Plattsburgh College is shown driving his car along a Plattsburgh street. Car trouble develops. After a search for the trouble, the car is fixed and continues down the road.

Words superimposed over certain scenes in the movie plus still photos depicting other scenes in the movie are used to indicate the steps that "Huffy Dustman," the undergraduate, undertakes as he moves from an indeterminate situation to one that is determinate. The superimposed words and the photos indicate when habit is in control, when cognitive dissonance (a problem) arises, when hypothe-

ses are being formulated, tested, and rejected or accepted, and the point at which habit is back in control.

In his book, *Logic*, and in other writings, Dewey describes the steps one undertakes in moving from the indeterminate to the determinate. Once one has arrived at a settled state of affairs, the structure of that determinate situation is not usefully described by Dewey. Since it is this structure that is of central concern within the New Curricula movement led by Bruner and Zacharias, an attempt is made to describe the structure of one's knowledge once he has ceased inquiry and solved his problem.

The theory of knowledge developed is used in organizing the course and in organizing the remainder of the TV lesson which consists of a preview of what is to be covered in the course.

Classroom scenes, both photos and movies, are used to picture progressive education. Historical photos and folk songs that were products of the industrial revolution depict events constituting socio-historical causes of the rise of progressive education. The role that Dewey's philosophy played in the creation of progressive education is discussed. Once progressive education has been described and its social and ideological causes have been discussed some problems in evaluating the movement are stated. Some of the paperback books that are used in the course are introduced: Cremin's *Transformation of the School* is used to reveal socio-historical dimensions. Dewey's *Experience and Education* is used to portray the major ideological ingredients. Books by Rafferty and Paul Goodman are used to show negative and positive evaluations of the movement.

Definition, causation, and evaluation of the New Curricula Movement are discussed using movies and photos of classroom scenes and recent historical events. Bruner's *Toward a Theory of Instruction* is introduced as the last of the paperback books that constitute the textbooks for the course.

A brief summary using special visual and audio effects and an animated sequence is presented. The program closes to the strains of "Mrs. Robinson" with the Plattsburgh undergraduate driving down the road.

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PRINCIPLES OF EDUCATION: DESCRIPTIVE OR PRESCRIPTIVE

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ABSTRACT

Many texts about "Principles of Teaching" appear to have a common area of confusion. It concerns the question of whether we are describing or prescribing the nature of teaching. Courses in the principles of teaching are also unclear as to whether statements of fact about teaching are being presented or whether proposals about teaching are being offered.

There are three kinds of sentences, expressing propositional attitudes, that we can make about experience. First, there are analytic sentences. Their validity depends on their logical form. They are valid, if they are not self-contradictory. Second, there are sentences that express statements about experience that can be established as true or false. Their truth or falsity depends on the application of scientific method. *They describe.* Finally, there are sentences that express proposals about experience that exhort, entreat, or recommend. *They prescribe.* They are not true or false in the scientific sense. We give reasons or cite principles, e.g., truth-telling, when we use them in argument.

Many texts about principles of teaching and educational psychology are not clear on the last two types of sentences. The term "principles" itself as used in professional education courses suffers from vagueness at this point. We are rarely sure, on the one hand, whether the writer is speaking of principles of education based on the natural or social sciences. This would appear to be the case when they speak of "principles of behavior or learning." Supposedly there are empirical facts, publicly verifiable data, that can confirm or disconfirm these principles.

Unfortunately, on the other hand, "principles" is also used to refer to rules or norms of conduct. This usage is apparent when writers use such words as "should" or "ought." "Children ought to be truthful." "We should not allow students to be discourteous to each other." Although it is not always clear, we can assume that "should" is being used in the admonitory sense and not the conditional mood.

If in teaching our professional education courses, we would keep this distinction between "is" and "ought" clearly in mind, than there would be less ambiguity and vagueness in this area. The logical sense of "should" should be explicit when we speak of "principles of teaching," so that it is clear when we are stating what is the case or prescribing what ought to be.

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E. GENERAL SESSION

TWELVE ASSUMPTIONS FOR A FIRST COURSE IN EDUCATIONAL STUDIES

Paul Nash
Boston University

I do not want to be imprisoned by the notion of a "course." I would hope that we are moving in a direction that leads to the abandonment of structuring educational experiences around courses. I prefer to talk about "the first experience of the study of education." We are faced with the need to lend educational studies more impact—this is difficult to do if we remain stuck within the notion of a course.

First assumption. The main purpose of this first experience or program or course in educational studies is that students learn something.

Inference. The focus of our endeavors in designing the program should be the nature and quality of the learning that occurs.

Second assumption. A minority of students in this first program are going to become scholars or researchers or teachers in the area of the foundations of education; the majority are going to become educational practitioners of various kinds.

Inference. The program should not be dominated by the kind of experiences that would be appropriate for the minority; it should rather provide relevant experience for the majority (on which I shall concentrate from now on), while at the same time offering to the minority an introduction to some of the ways in which education might be studied.

Third assumption. Educational practitioners are often passive, non-initiating, non-participating; they ought to be more active, initiating, participating; one learns to behave in these ways by experiencing successful practice in those behaviors.

Inference. Programs in educational studies should not be completely pre-planned; students should be involved actively in the collaborative designing, planning, and executing of the program, the learning process, and the evaluation procedures; there should be significant room for student initiative.

I could stop here, and wait until the students arrive. But "collaboration" to me means that there is also room for faculty initiative and participation. So I shall offer some of my own preferences; but these in practice would have to be tempered and interpreted in the light of the actual situation facing me—one would have to know, in particular, who the students are.

Fourth assumption. Learning is more vividly, permanently, and functionally gained when it is based upon first-hand experience that has existential relevance for the learner.

Inference. An educational studies program should begin with a form of practicum for the student, it should be relevant to where he is now; and significant in terms of where he aspires to go.

Fifth assumption. The educational practitioner is going to spend much of his professional life trying to make sense of his experiences; trying to organize them and generalize about them in order to understand them; and then trying to act or decide wisely in the light of his understanding.

Inference. An educational studies program should reflect this expected pattern of professional life; it should start by immersing the student in real, personally relevant, non-trivial experiences; it should help him to learn how to conceptualize and generalize from these experiences; it should then encourage him to commit himself to those concepts and act in the light of them.

Sixth assumption. The educational practitioner will make value judgments; he will have value commitments; and he will have a normative model (explicit or assumed) of the educated person toward which he moves.

Inference. An educational studies program should provide for the exploration of several alternative normative models of the educated person for the student's consideration and analysis; it should attend to value questions and commitments; it will not be exhausted by the scientific study of educational problems; it should help the student to clarify his own professional role and normative commitment in the field of education.

Seventh assumption. It is important that the educational practitioner not only have the ability to analyze, assess, and use the findings of educational research; and have some skill in solving educational problems; he should also have the ability to formulate significant educational questions.

Inference. An educational studies program should provide practice and skill toward building a general theory of education, one which will facilitate both the analysis and assessment of research findings and the formulation of meaningful questions and hypotheses.

Eighth assumption. There are many revolutions occurring simultaneously at the present time; many parts of the educational structure (including practices, institutions, values) are rapidly becoming maladaptive and dysfunctional; there is great need for educational change.

Inference. Students of educational studies should become dissatisfied; they should become educational critics; they should become educational revolutionaries, by which is meant people with the experience, knowledge, and skill to live in a revolutionary world; an educational studies program should provide these qualities without laying down the direction the revolution should take.

Ninth assumption. Educational practitioners are often lacking in the experience, knowledge, and skills required to make them effective change agents, both in the classroom and in the wider institutional, community, and societal dimensions of education.

Inference. An educational studies program should give explicit attention to these needs; the means of bringing about educational change should be systematically examined; students should have practical experience of bringing about change in a specific location (perhaps in the university of which they are a part, e.g., through the development of curricula, the reformulation of educational policy, the gaining and uses of power); they should become acquainted with research findings from the applied behavioral sciences concerning the facilitation of change; they should be helped to develop a sense of responsibility for the uses of power and the uses of knowledge.

Tenth assumption. The educational practitioner in this post-bureaucratic age is going to have to be able to work collaboratively and effectively with others in group situations.

Inference. An educational studies program should be conducted in a way designed to foster the skills of collaborative planning, goal setting, conducting of courses and programs; it should provide T-group experience; it should emphasize knowledge of group processes.

Eleventh assumption. Feelings and emotions are part of the human personality; they are important determinants of human acts and decisions; they are, therefore, of legitimate concern to educators; they can be influenced, refined, educated; they are a legitimate part of an educational program.

Inference. An educational studies program should include the study of art and literature to facilitate the exploration of emotion, the refinement of feelings, the education of sensitivities; it should also include sensitivity training, human relations experience, to develop greater awareness of the emotional dimension of human relationships.

Twelfth assumption. Educational practitioners are constantly engaged in the process of evaluation and value-judging, both of others and of themselves; this is a process in which we can develop greater skill through practice and study.

Inference. An educational studies program should provide significant opportunities for students to engage (in collaboration with fellow students and faculty) in the evaluation of their own behavior and performance, evaluation of the program, evaluation of the faculty.

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AIMS OF A FIRST COURSE IN EDUCATIONAL STUDIES

Erwin H. Epstein
University of Wisconsin

The nature of any course should be dictated by its aims. The primary aim of undergraduate education courses is to train competent teachers. This applies naturally, then, to the first course in educational studies, which is the topic of this symposium.

The aims of teacher education tend to be consistent with one of two views. One view is that students should be taught certain techniques of teaching, because there are certain ways of teaching given subjects that teachers must know and use. Courses on methods of teaching best typify this view. The second view is that for students to become effective teachers they must understand both the nature of the child in the school and the nature of the school in the society, and is usually characteristic of the "foundations" courses.

In a given course, these two views are not compatible, however suitable they may both be in an overall teacher education program. The how-to-teach view in its extreme dictates that there are tried and proven techniques which have been established through experimentation over the years, and that the use of these techniques will lead to effective teaching. The child-school-society view subscribes, on the other hand, to no such clearly defined means of achieving effectiveness in teaching, but suggests instead that good teaching derives from the teacher's sensitivity to the school environment and the child. The two views are incompatible insofar as one prescribes a particular path

to be followed in teacher education, while the other disavows the following of particular paths.

Decisions about the nature of the first course in educational studies will depend on which of these two views is accepted. Indeed, the logical conclusion of accepting the child-school-society view is to reject any proposal for a given first course in educational studies, insofar as the existence of such a course represents the acceptance of a particular body of knowledge as the most appropriate.

There is no way to argue for the adoption of one of these views over the other, on the basis of which will yield the more effective teaching. This is because the properties of effective teaching are not merely objective; they are also normative, deriving from the image one has of the "good" teacher. The how-to-teach view measures good teaching by how much knowledge is absorbed by pupils as a direct result of the teacher's efforts. According to this view, the effective teacher is one who can successfully convey bits of preconceived knowledge, which, when fitted together like a puzzle, yield wisdom. In contrast, good teaching from the child-school-society point of view is a process of inquiry in which the particular content does not much matter. Indeed, in the child-school-society approach the content offered to students should change perpetually, because the interrelationship between child, school and society is never immutable, and can be studied from different perspectives. The objective is therefore one of seeking new knowledge rather than absorbing old knowledge. Insofar as different bodies of knowledge are amenable to inquiry, claims for the greater appropriateness of certain content in the curriculum are always contestable.

In a change-oriented society, the persuasiveness of the child-school-society approach is almost unassailable. Change requires new ideas, the search for which is inconsistent with an emphasis on the teaching of preconceived bits of information. Hence, the first course in educational studies should not be one particular course. It should be any course that promotes inquiry into the interrelationship between child, school and society. Inasmuch as there is potentially an almost endless variety of courses that can serve this end, the first course in educational studies should be governed first by the individual's interests and career proclivities, and second by the interests and capabilities of faculty members responsible for the teacher education program.

For a program consistent with this view to be successful, there must be periodic surveillance of students' interests. At Wisconsin, for example, I helped to carry out a survey on, among other things, topics students found to be of most interest to them and their beliefs about the relevance of content in courses they had taken in the educational foundations areas. This was in preparation for the establishment of a program of five week one credit modular units, in which students would have the option of taking a minimum of one unit (i.e., one credit) from each of the areas of Learning, Human Development,

and School and Society, and four to six units (depending on the student's particular program of education) elected without restriction among the three areas.

Students select freely from these units that are particularly interesting and relevant to them. On the other hand, they can if they wish satisfy the foundations requirement by taking conventional semester-long courses, a variety of which offer certification credit. Or, they may adopt a combination among the traditional courses and the modular units. That is, they can elect a conventional course for three credits and meet the remaining requirements by taking one-credit unit modules.

At present, this program is in its infancy, so that a report on its success would be premature. It is appropriate to say only that the arrangement is consistent with the view that teacher quality will be affected not so much by what is taught to students in teacher education programs as by how it is taught to them.

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THE FIRST COURSE IN EDUCATIONAL STUDIES

William Van Til
Indiana State University

I base my contribution to our thinking concerning the first course in educational studies upon a curriculum theory to which I hold. Like you, I have listened to the conflicting voices of those curriculum thinkers who urge that the individual learner be regarded as the source of curriculum content, those who instead urge that the curriculum be based upon the concerns of the surrounding society, those who instead regard the only proper work of the curriculum to be the clarification of values, and those who instead base curriculum on the processes, structures, and modes of inquiry of scholars in separate fields. It has long seemed to me that each point of view had part of the elusive relativistic truth but that none had a monopoly upon it. So I have reached in curriculum my own theoretical position meaningful to me which holds that learning experiences must meet the personal-social needs of the learner, must illuminate the social realities of our times, and must help to develop humane values based on the persistent use of the method of intelligence. Such learning experiences cannot be limited to any inherited organization of subject matters but must embrace the interdisciplinary problems crucial to man in society.

Fred T. Wilhelms last night in the Hunt Lecture conferred upon me some dubious immortality as a phrase maker, so I would like to return the compliment tonight by quoting Wilhelms. Once while I was expressing opinions concerning the curriculum similar to those I have just mentioned, Wilhelms said sadly, "Bill Van Til, there is no hope for you." I naturally inquired why not. Fred said, "You expect educa-

tors to keep more than one thing in mind simultaneously. There is no hope for you."

I plead guilty. I do expect educators to keep more than one thing in mind simultaneously—and I expect this despite the child-centering of the 1920's, the social crusading of the 1930's, the zeal for democracy programs of the war years of the 1940's, the Sputnik era panic of the 1950's, and the prevalence of the structure of the disciplines approach of the 1960's. In the 1970's we will have to keep more than one thing in mind simultaneously if we are to develop the curriculum. For confirmation of this belief, I commend for your reading the March issue of *Kappan* which will reach you shortly after you return home from this meeting. It contains articles on "Curriculum for the 70's" which I was fortunate as guest editor to obtain from Theodore Brameld, Wells Foshay, Thomas Tanner, Lawrence Metcalf and Maurice Hunt, Charles V. Hamilton, Stephen Wright, Fred Wilhelms, Robert Havighurst, Donald Robinson, Joseph Wood Krutch, David Engler, Ronald Doll, Muriel Crosby, and Harold Shane.

So, as to the first course in educational studies, I suggest that it attempt to meet the personal-social needs of the learner, illuminate social realities, and help to develop humane values. And this, I suspect, places me in opposition to what appear to me the two major schools of thought concerning the first course. The first school of thought holds that the first course in educational studies should be a social foundations of education course which conveys the major concepts concerning school and society from the social sciences such as anthropology, economics, etcetera, through either separate field or interdisciplinary content representative of philosophy of education, educational sociology, history of education, comparative education, etc. The second school of thought holds that the first course in educational studies should be a general introduction to education course which concentrates on the personal decisions which must be made by young people as they contemplate embarking on the occupation of teaching. Each school of thought is described unkindly by the other school. The first school of thought is described by its critics as academic, pretentious, and overly intellectualized. The second school of thought is described by its critics as trivial, sentimental, and akin to Dick and Jane primers. I do not myself approve of such billingsgate and mud-slinging. But neither do I completely approve of each school of thought.

I am inclined to think that a preferable first course in educational studies would use as its springboard the questions, concerns, and perplexities concerning education which characterize today's nineteen and twenty year olds and would apply to these concerns the genuinely relevant insights from the various behavioral sciences as perceived by scholars not only in the social and philosophical foundations of education but also in the necessarily interrelated psychological foundations of education. I would not worry too much about whether the catalog classified the course as introduction to education or listed it as the first course in foundations of education. I would worry about con-

verting the course into a series of significant learning experiences which combined seminar study and discussion with a program taking place outside of the walls of the classroom in the surrounding environment of schools, communities, and, indeed, the world. I would worry about and, more important, struggle to achieve this combination because, though most of us acknowledge the need to blend college classrooms with communities, few of us ever manage to do so. I would struggle to make value consideration, social realities, and humanization of high importance in studies and activities in both environments.

In the first course in educational studies we should mobilize from our scholarship and from our relationships with the surrounding culture whatever is genuinely germane to the perplexities of today's generation of college students. Today we should at least open up reflection and experience on concerns such as these:

What's a school for, anyway?
How do learners differ?
How does the social order affect teaching?
What makes a good curriculum?
How did education get this way?

We should help with such questions as:

Why educate? Why teach?
What is the scope of American education?
Who teaches?
What are teachers paid?
What organizations do they join?
Is our field a profession?
What is expected of teachers?
Who sets the broad policies?
Who's in charge here?
Where's the money coming from?
Is the teacher free?

We should also be able to initiate considered thought on public, private, and parochial systems, on teaching in rural, suburban, and city areas, and on the class and ethnic backgrounds of students. We should also be able to help new teachers with the worries which the new teacher encounters, with the nature of his new work, and with his opportunities for learning. We should be able to help the new teacher think through whether teaching is really for him.

Surely our knowledge in the field of educational studies treats of such matters. Surely we can employ such springboards and not be limited by them. Surely we can apply what we know to help twenty year olds to the achievement of well founded understandings. I believe we can achieve both relevance and high scholarship. At least I hope so.

FIRST COURSE IN EDUCATIONAL STUDIES AT THE UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS, CHICAGO CIRCLE

Van Cleve Morris
University of Illinois at Chicago Circle

Instead of concentrating, as the other speakers have this evening, on the speculative possibilities of such a first course, I would like to devote my time to telling you what we are actually doing at Chicago Circle. Our practice follows very closely upon some of the ideas suggested by the other speakers, particularly that of Professor Epstein who emphasizes near the close of his remarks the importance of not what is taught to students but "how it is taught to them." Also, our efforts reflect one of Paul Nash's ideas, namely, that a first course should be closely related to the "practicum" mode.

Our course in Educational Foundations is a four quarter-hour course taught to late sophomores or early juniors. Perhaps the most important aim of the course is to acquaint the student with the manipulation of theoretical concepts. By this we mean the analysis, criticism, and application of theoretical ideas in the field of Education. Beyond this one particular injunction, we leave each of our instructors free to "do his own thing" in the teaching of this course.

The instructional staff itself is a rainbow of professional specialties; educational philosophers, educational historians, sociologists of education, educational anthropologists, specialists in psycho-linguistics, social psychologists, and one lawyer. Next year we hope to add to this group an educational architect who is a specialist in learning environment design and also a militant and angry Black who, besides his expertise in linguistics studies (which is a specialty of another of our black professors), brings to his work the kind of visceral understanding of the "Black Experience" which every faculty in an urban university desperately needs.

We loose this stable of specialists on our course in Educational Foundation and let them individually interpret the catalogue description—"a study of the philosophical, historical, and social influences on American education"—in his own idiosyncratic way.

We add to this strategy another feature which might just as well be called "reality shock," or, to coin a contradiction in terms, "the phenomenological input" of the course. This takes the form of a laboratory period for the students in which for three hours per week they spend their time in the schools of Chicago. This lab period is not intended to serve the customary purposes of a field experience. That is, our students do not do case studies of children, nor are they expected to undertake an observation of the teacher in action. On the contrary, we place them there to get the feel of a real situation, to respond effectively and emotionally to what is going on around them, and to feel the values of school life, the impact of social class differences on education, the unorthodox language structures of ghetto children first hand. Although their work in the school is disguised as

that of a teacher aide, their first business there is what might be called that of collecting awarenesses. We believe in this way that these students can begin to *feel* as well as *understand* what educational foundations are all about.

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V. COMPARATIVE AND INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION SOCIETY
A. SESSION ONE

EDUCATIONAL APPROACHES TO MANPOWER PLANNING

Richard L. Cummings
University of Wisconsin

ABSTRACT

"Educational Approaches to Manpower Planning" presents a rationale for manpower planning, explores the conceptual strengths and weaknesses of four of the most commonly utilized strategies for initiating manpower studies and reviews recent case studies representative of these strategies. Emphasizing economic problems that need to be recognized and either dealt with or ignored; i.e., the future composition of outputs of the economy, the relative supply of different types of labor and the nature of the technological conditions of production, and improvements in the state of technological knowledge; the paper analyzes the utility of (1) the extrapolation of trends observed in the past, (2) the obtaining of estimates of future demands for skills vis-a-vis interviewing employers, (3) the application of gross analogy approach based upon the assumption that a manpower growth pattern is, more or less, defined by the skill distributions of the labor force presently existing in various economies at different levels of development, (4) a multiplier method which assumes the existence of a functional relationship between some element or elements of the occupational structure and selected independent variables such as the level of sectoral output, and (5) a comprehensive sectoral approach which requires that the entire labor be cross-classified by occupation and by sector.

DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION FOR URBAN MARGINAL POPULATIONS: LATIN AMERICA, THE CASE IN POINT

Claire Benjamin
University of Florida, Gainesville

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper is to question the current direction of research in development or comparative education. We are neglecting the kind of research that might contribute to increasing the relevancy of education to marginal populations, particularly in terms of political and social development.

We are past the time when we can talk—without quite a bit of hedging—of the formal school system as being a positive factor or even a contributor to the social changes being experienced in all societies. Nor can we use the complexity of an educational system as necessarily an indicator of political, economic and social development.

Research activities in development education or comparative education have tended to focus on aspects of systems analysis. This approach has been important in providing data for the study of educational development. However, because of limitations of methodology and scope, it seems to provide only part of the necessary insights to our understanding of education, and it limits our view to what *is* rather than what *might be.*

We have to start asking some different questions: "How much can formal schooling contribute to an individual's ability to function in the society if he is part of the marginal population?" "What would be appropriate educational experiences for a member of the squatter community in Peru in order to be properly prepared to participate fully in a modern society?" "Does Chile's highly differentiated school system provide significant educational experiences to lower class Chileans living in a squatter settlement in Santiago?" We should also ask: "What are the inhibiting factors outside the marginal communities that have prevented more innovative changes in education?" Prior to these questions is one still more basic: How do we identify what would be significant educational experiences for marginal populations, whether they be Latin American, African, or United States ghetto groups?

We have been using as criteria and evidence for our studies factors that are based on acceptance of a particular kind of educational system, one that was most fully developed in the United States and had its origin during the 19th century. The efficacy of this system is being challenged even in the United States by writers like McClellan (1967) in his work *Towards an Effective Critique of American Education,* or in Latin America by Illich (1968) in his article "The Futility of Schooling in Latin America."

Part of the problem raised involves seeing 'relevancy' of formal schooling, i.e., the present system, to changing social and political needs as a universal concern. Maybe we should be working towards identifying constructs useful to a theory of 'relevancy of education' based on this claim of universality to the educational problems of marginal populations.

One of the major problems facing all nations, both 'developing' and 'developed,' is that of integration of marginal or ghetto populations into the burgeoning urban scene. It is important to recognize the universality of some basic social, economic, and political problems that are part of the urban explosion. If these problems are to be studied adequately, there must be increased research emphasis on what Holmes (1965) calls the normative patterns in a society and their influence on education, and less research attention to institutional patterns, which have been the focus of much existing research.

Three research areas are especially in need of cultivation. First, there should be philosophical or conceptual analysis of the language of development education, for the purpose of disciplining it. Such analysis should also be used to clarify the legitimate goals of education in marginal communities. Second, there should be curricular studies to translate the findings of the social sciences into teaching procedures and related learnings deemed necessary to enable marginal people to function in their society. Third, innovative curriculum materials should be used, particularly in social studies programs, that are specifically selected to provide more relevant education to marginal groups. Cross-cultural analyses of education and urban crises would be especially relevant.

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POLICY STATEMENTS ON EDUCATION AND THEIR IMPLEMENTATION IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES: PAKISTAN AS A CASE STUDY

Mahmood ul Hasan Butt
Indiana University

EXCERPTS

The last five and twenty years have witnessed many a significant development all over the world. One of these has been the emergence of many new countries on the political map mainly out of the old colonial empires in Africa and Asia. In almost all the cases achieve-

ment of political independence has been accompanied by some kind of effort, concerted or constrained, at national consolidation and economic development. Whereas political independence has come to many rather rapidly, economic development has not been equally facile. Most of the leaders of these newly independent countries sooner or later came to realize that it is one thing to throw out the colonial masters but it is totally different to build a new social order which the political independence was supposed to usher in. Whereas the former could be achieved by essentially negative and passive means such as civil disobedience and non-cooperation with the colonial regimes, the latter calls for a more positive and constructive strategy. It was recognized that some of the essential prerequisites for the formulation and eventual successful implementation of this strategy are changes in existing attitudes of the people towards their society and their government and an increasing awareness among them that the newly won independence can be sustained only through a continuous process of innovative restructuring of social, political and economic institutions. Given this awareness it was not hard for the intelligentsia of these countries to come to the Jeffersonian dictum that if a nation expects to be ignorant and free it is expecting something that has never been and never will be.

This need for an enlightened citizenry and well trained manpower to carry out the myriad tasks of nation building has prompted quite a few policy statements on education. The nature of these statements varies with the source from which they come and ranges between pious platitudes and vague political sloganeering to definite blueprints for comprehensive educational reforms oriented towards devising a well-integrated and internally balanced system of education. Almost all the policy statements on education issued by the erstwhile political leaders as their manifestoes tend to be vague and general and when shorn of their glib rhetoric for radical change, they appear to be clever devices for maintaining the political and economic status quo. There are some distinct exceptions to this generalization; for instance, Tanzanian President Nyrere's attempts at evolving a system of education for self-reliance or Gandhi's scheme for basic education for the teeming masses of India.

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The second kind of policy statements on education has come out of special commissions entrusted with the task of reviewing, evaluating and reforming the existing systems of education such as Sir Eric Ashby's Commission on Nigerian Education, Kothari Commission of India or the Commission on National Education of Pakistan in 1959. Detailed and well thought out documents have come out of these commissions pointing out the weaknesses in the existing systems of education and some excellent remedial measures.

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A third kind of policy statement on education is the one that we find as an integral part of five-year, six-year or seven-year national development plans. These policy statements are of a more humble nature. Though deriving their sustenance from the comparatively broader reports of the commissions on education, they establish certain quantitative targets and allocate resources to achieve them within the plan period.

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Though these three categories do not fully exhaust the list of varieties of policy statements on education yet they pretty much subsume all the major kinds. We have tried to show that each one of the three performs certain definite roles. The first provides broad ideals, the second attempts to identify definite goals and the third tries to break down these goals into plan targets.

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Many attempts have been made to explain the dismal performance of the educational sector in Pakistan. Dearth of material and intellectual resources has been the most commonly recognized cause. It appears that the malady runs deeper. Educational policy-making has been a victim of an all pervading subjectivity. Normative and prescriptive suggestions have been made through "guesstimates" without any systematic empirical underpinnings. The lack of objective correlatives in the policies has been the result of subjective images of values, problems and realities which rarely approximate their corresponding objective images. Hence the arbitrary setting up of targets, goals and priorities using insufficient time perspectives. Such policy-making will continue to produce idealistic but not feasible plans and the educational crisis will continue to compound.

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B. SESSION TWO

AN ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAM IN TURKEY: CONDITIONS AND CONSEQUENCES

Harold F. Carpenter, Jr.
Stanford University

ABSTRACT

At the conclusion of the First World War, the sick man of Europe, the Ottoman Empire, existed in name alone, only to be reborn four years later as the Republic of Turkey. Taking a calculated risk that the peasants' isolation—physical and psychological—and the generally low levels of expectation would keep them from growing restive, the Kemalists' first effort of national development was elitist in origin

and urban in emphasis; it left perhaps twenty million villagers almost where they were thirty years earlier.

Today a second, silent transformation is reaching the deeper layers of the nation and involves the bringing of Turkey's peasantry into active social and political participation on supra-village levels; the creation of new social demands, expectations, and satisfactions; and the mechanization and industrialization of the rural economy. The Turkish government has decided that adult education will be entrusted with a major role in the transformation of rural society.

After some investigation, the Adult Education Center in Duzce, a town located almost equi-distance from Ankara and Istanbul and some twenty miles from the Black Sea, was selected for this study on the transformation of village society. This Center is responsible for the administration of programs in eight basic areas to a rural population of nearly one hundred and forty thousand living in the 210 villages within the district of Duzce.

Literacy and general education classes. The literacy and general education component of the Center's adult education effort was the focus of this research. From the inception of the adult education effort in Duzce, this component has been the largest in number of classes offered, number of participants, and number of teachers; the Center has administered approximately 25 literacy classes per year over the past seven years. These classes are given three nights per week for a total of five hours per week over a four month period. A minimum enrollment of ten adults per class is mandatory.

Literacy education teachers. Literacy education teachers are drawn entirely from the ranks of the village primary school teachers who offer the classes in the primary school classroom during the evening hours. For their services, the teachers receive 400 lira, approximately 40 dollars, at the conclusion of the four month program. None of these teachers had received in-service training or additional professional education dealing with the instruction of adults or with adult psychology. In the adult literacy education classes these teachers typically follow the same methods and use the same materials which have been prepared for and have proved successful in the teaching of primary school aged children.

An investigation of the background of the teachers revealed that most were married, had been in the profession for an average of five years, and were graduates of one of the Teacher Training Schools. Unlike most village primary school teachers, those who participated in the literacy education program were of an urban background and preferred a non-village teaching site for themselves.

Methodology and findings. Four major stratification criteria were used in the selection of the villages in which the research was conducted. These were: ethnic composition, physical distance, functional distance, and population. After the application of these "controls," fifty-five out of the district's 210 villages remained as possible research sites; of these, twelve were selected.

Within these twelve villages we were interested in two basic populations: participants and non-participants in the literacy education program. A total of two hundred and thirty-eight village males aged between 18 and 60 were sampled and administered the interview schedule; sixty-three per cent of those sampled were participants.

Three research tools were used to gather the data to test the hypotheses generated by this study. All subjects were administered a 210 item interview schedule; in addition, throughout all phases of the research, several villagers were interviewed in depth and/or observed in both the village and the urban settings.

Antecedent conditions for participation. The first phase of this study was concerned with the villagers' motivations for participation; to assess these motivations, all subjects residing in the three villages receiving the literacy classes for the first time during the 1968-1969 program year were administered the interview schedule prior to the commencement of the classes.

The specific hypotheses developed for this phase of the research were:

Hypothesis A: villagers who have had repeated exposure to urban centers will have a negative self-image;

Hypothesis B: villagers with a negative self-image will desire to change that image;

Hypothesis C: villagers who desire to change their self-image will be highly motivated to participate in the literacy classes at the outset; and

Hypothesis D: villagers who are content with their self-image will not take advantage of the literacy classes at the outset.

Findings. The data from the interview schedules, supported by the interviews and participant observation, confirmed these hypotheses. A negative self-image characterizes the participant group members but not the non-participant group members; this image, the result of specific kinds of exposure to the urban public culture and the operating cultures of urban Turks, does motivate the participants to participate in the adult education program.

Consequences of participation. At the conclusion of the four month program, the participants were re-administered the interview schedule to identify and assess the immediate consequences of participation. The hypotheses considered were;

Hypothesis E: the literacy classes, by exposing the participants to appropriate role models, will help them achieve a self-image with which they can be content;

Hypothesis F: the literacy classes will expand the private culture of the participants;

Hypothesis G: participants, as a result of additions to their private culture, will have different attitudes, wants, and desires than non-participants; and

Hypothesis H: as a result of participation, there will be an expansion in the number of operating cultures available to participating villagers.

Findings. The data from the post-participation interview schedule revealed that exposure to fellow village participants and to the urban-specific operating cultures of the teachers during the second, unstructured general education hour of the program effected some major changes in the attitudes of the participants; they acquired more modern, more efficacious attitudinal sets and were more sure of themselves and of their ability to do things on their own initiative and with their own resources. The perpetuation of the status quo was no longer seen as inevitable or desirable and the participants themselves were more open to new experiences than they were previously.

Direction of change. The last phase of this research considered the direction and permanency of the change in the operating cultures of the participants over an extended period of time. The post-participation interview schedule was administered to those villagers who participated in either the 1966-1967 or the 1967-1968 program year adult education literacy classes.

Findings. The new operating cultures of the participants appear to be strengthened and to become functional over time. The participants become progressively more active consumers of the public media, undertake new work experiences, and travel more frequently and extensively. The participants' family members were also influenced as reflected in the greater amount of extra-village activity permitted the wives by the respondents.

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LANGUAGE AND THE SCHOOLS IN KENYA

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ABSTRACT

The development of a language policy is an explosive issue in many countries on the African continent today. While demands exist for an African "national language," it is apparent to many that the tribal tongues used in nineteenth century Africa are not sufficient to prepare Africans for the twenty-first century. Caught in this dilemma are educational officials who must attempt to interpret and put into operation government policies which vacillate between the need to promote an African vernacular for socio-political purposes and the need to use a European language to assist in the modernization process.

Nowhere is this problem more apparent than in the East African country of Kenya where over half the pupils entering school today are confronted at an early age with the use of English as the medium of instruction. While English has been the chief language of the central government and of industry and commerce since colonial days, it was assumed by many that with independence a concerted effort would be

made to promote an African tongue. It was felt that this was necessary not only to develop a better appreciation of Kenya's cultural heritage, but to avoid the creation of an English-speaking elite who would be unable to communicate easily with their own village people.

Nevertheless, since independence the number of African youth who are exposed to the English language in the early primary grades has steadily increased. The reasons for this increase range from a groundswell of popular demand on the part of parents who view English as a vehicle to success in the modern world, to government officials who see the need to encourage international contacts and Western industrial and technological development.

The ramifications of an educational program based on the use of a foreign language are presently being studied by educators in Kenya. The need to consider the psychological problems of young people who are required to move away from their mother tongue before it is fully developed has been placed in juxtaposition with the need to prepare a limited number of students for high level manpower needs.

The language experiment in Kenya is being observed by African officials who are faced with the challenge of developing their human resource potential to the fullest.

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APARTHEID AND BANTU EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

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ABSTRACT

Apartheid (apartness) as an informal vehicle of exclusion and socio-cultural accommodation has existed since the first white settlers came to the Cape area. As a political blueprint, Apartheid emerged from a coalition of aspiring National Party leaders and Reformed Church sects and was published in a Christian National Education report and subsequently operationalized after the 1948 election to power of the Afrikaner National Party.

The rationale for this separation of races was primarily a fear of group extermination by alien cultures. The peculiar interpretation of Calvinistic theology by the Dutch-Afrikaner lent a spiritual affirmation to the desire for safeguarding a perceived uniqueness through segregation.

While it is erroneous to label Calvinism as the perpetrator of Apartheid, it is just as fallacious to label economic industrialization as the cause. Although protective of white interests with respect to job categories, Apartheid becomes untenable and uneconomical in nature when considered as an agent for industrial growth and expeditious location of manufacturing. It is more meaningful to submit that

Apartheid has been applied in spite of its incongruity with South African economics. Group survival supersedes all planning, all social relations. This explains the untenable economic policy of moving industries to the native reserve borders and previously limiting non-white workers from moving into highly skilled occupations, while offering protective clauses for the poor-white job holder.

Stratification, crystalized mobility, nationalism, strict codes of behavior, and denial of variance within the group have in the past been means of self defense. Both English and Afrikaans groups have supported Apartheid as a temporary means of accommodation.

One side of the valence is weighed by Apartheid laws that affront, segregate, and limit. Contervening the balance is the alternative recognition that Apartheid offers development of the homelands and anticipates economic capitalization for all the participants. The Transkei, for all its shortcomings, is moving piecemeal to fulfill the stated objectives of Apartheid.

The weakness of the political philosophy of Apartheid is in its failure to provide a practical solution for the urbanized Bantu. Apartheid in this realm becomes a "petty Apartheid" that has a hollow ring of "separate but equal" and merely is discriminatory. Current legislation fosters a physical and psychological isolation in townships like Mamalodi, Athlone, and dozens of others. There is a growing awareness of the total variance and irreconcilable differences between applying Apartheid in the reserves and in the townships.

Substantive changes in South Africa's Apartheid policy are beginning to occur. The growing strength of the *Verlichte* (liberal Afrikaner) and English minority suggests a new credo that cuts across party lines and poses a new vocal body that is re-examining Apartheid and forcing the government into some positions that foretell defeat. Economic fact leaves the conclusion that increasing industrial growth forces more and more non-whites into previously white positions each year. This phenomena acts against any catalyzing the cultures into castes. Technological necessities, Western education, and the acts of white and black officials working together in all phases of Bantu development mean that individuals keep the systems open by crossing the cultural barriers and incorporating useful knowledge of each culture.

A salient concern of Afrikaner realpolitik was that the educational philosophy mirror the social-political philosophy, at least insofar as keeping order and ensuring societal survival. Dr. Verwoerd telescoped the philosophy of Apartheid and its application to the educational spectrum by dealing in specifics that portended to offer full potentialities to the Bantu within his own community while excluding the non-white from anything but certain forms of labor in the white community. This conception, while narrow, was a significant broadening of Apartheid over its earlier exclusively restrictive nature.

Behavioral objectives of curriculum were focused upon teaching the contributions of all cultures to South Africa's growth, especially those of the respective student. Skills were encouraged which were

useful to his community and the economic needs of the Republic. The teacher, as the agent of socio-politization, was to be a committed instigator of the process. If certain aspects of Verwoerd's policies could be viewed as a pragmatical broadening, so was the gradual decentralization of authority from state control to the new Bantu states that was intended to create a commonwealth. This new control, while limited, has already seen the fruition of different aims and methods as witnessed by the dissolution of religion as a required, comprehensive "pass" exam in Bantu education and the resurgence of the use of English in the Transkei and Ceskei.

Apartheid has increasingly promised a series of opportunities which are identical in structure and substance to the way in which the Afrikaner views his history: group isolation and a gradual blending of cultures in such a way as to insure identity and uniqueness while gaining preparations for competition. This has already become past history for the white South African, and it can be assumed that the industrial demands of moment will eventually doom Apartheid to the same type of papal anacronism.

Yet most of the merits of Bantu education have been won by Apartheid's omissions to implement its philosophy. The educationa innovations—team teaching, flexible scheduling, and para-professionals in the classroom—are more a result of financial necessity thar Apartheid design.

Whatever social reality of moment or cultural possibilities Soutl Africa aspires to, in order to survive the country must create the anthropological climate that broadens, differentiates, and offers alternatives determined from within the groups affected. The present situation contains the seeds of its own destruction.

White survival depends directly upon the extent the Bantu are educated to form a responsible vocal polity and the degree of opportunity for acculturation offered the urban Bantu. The "Grand Design" may have relevance for the reserves, but something more must now be implemented, with the most complete definition of equality for self-fulfillment. Anything less leaves the entire nation with *baaskap*.

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VI. HISTORY OF EDUCATION SOCIETY
A. GENERAL SESSION

RECENT LITERATURE IN THE HISTORY OF NEGRO EDUCATION: A PANEL DISCUSSION

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University of Florida

SUMMARY

The discussion explored the question of the insight that recent literature of the black experience might offer to the study of history of

American education. It seemed possible to make two broad observations in response. First, history of education has been "white" in its values, assumptions and point of view. There was little or no sense of the black experience in the historical writings of Cubberley or of the succession of Progressive Education historians, who stressed the rise and successes of the American public school. The "New" historians of the last decade have shown even less awareness of black America in their non-involved, craftsmanly, detached, and, in effect, conservative, approach to history of education.

Second, the literature of the black experience suggests a revision of this white history of education toward a study of history which is toughminded in its willingness to examine the failures and limitations of the American school as well as its successes, but yet a study of history which is willing to state values, judgments, and to make a commitment to change.

Three areas in history of education with three differing approaches were offered as illustrations of this possible revision: 1. Current values and perceptions applied to the past as, for example, in a revaluation on present grounds of Jefferson's views on the education of blacks. 2. The social-psychologic dimension in viewing schools, as in the question of identity among peoples such as blacks, various ethnic groups, the poor, in the education offered in Mann's free, compulsory common school. 3. The cultural realm, as in the supremacy of the idea of white, European, Western civilization in the Progressive school.

To conclude, the black experience as reflected in the recent literature points up the inadequacies, in some cases absurdities, of the "white" educational history in explaining in our world. Clearly the present demands a rethinking of the past to include the insights and perceptions that have emerged from this new literature.

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USEFUL HISTORY AND BLACK IDENTITY*

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ABSTRACT

In two areas—the black experience and education—historians of the sixties have been challenged by professional and non-professional readers to make their studies more useful. This challenge carries criticisms of two major, familiar modes of historical explanation, the scientific, detached, objective scholarship on the one hand and on the other the subjective, committed, perhaps propagandistic studies of the past. This essay proposes to offer a third framework for "useful" his-

*The complete version of Dr. Mattingly's essay appears in the *History of Education Quarterly* for Fall, 1970.

tory by criticizing a recent study which deals somewhat representatively with both the black experience and education.

In the context of the limitations of this recent study—Tamara Hareven's "Step-Children of the Dream" *History of Education Quarterly* (Winter, 1969)—an alternative example of historical explanation is given by examining Ralph Ellison's *The Invisible Man.* The treatment of this historical source discusses how three generations of black spokesmen come to alter their views of "black identity."

To make such an historical analysis useful, the historian must focus upon change, must try to explicate the ways in which significant change is perceived by those experiencing it and must accept the fact that his retrospective values are never wholly similar to those of the past. Only in this way will historians avoid the pitfalls of both scientific and propagandistic history; only in this way will historians have a chance to understand the nature of past values and circumstances which condition the options of the present.

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